The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 11, 1897.

The Week.

UNRESERVED praise must be given to President McKinley's hearty support, in his inaugural address, of the arbitration treaty now pending in the Senate, and his earnest recommendation that it be speedily ratified. In this particular the new President has even surpassed the expectations of the friends of the treaty. It would have been very easy to indulge in commonplaces on this subject, but Mr. McKinley goes much beyond the ordinary language of commendation of the treaty. He holds it up as an example for all nations. "The importance and moral influence of the ratification of such a treaty," he says, "can hardly be overestimated in the cause of advancing civilization. It may well engage the best thought of the statesmen and people of every country, and I cannot but consider it fortunate that it was reserved to the United States to have the leadership in so grand a work." Equally encouraging are the President's utterances on foreign affairs in general. He declares himself for peace in principle, says we want no wars of conquest or foreign aggression, or war for any purpose until every agency of peace has failed. These earnest and emphatic words must have a most beneficial effect upon trade and industry, and it is to be hoped that they may quiet for a time the black-horse cavalry of the Senate. On the subject of civil-service reform Mr. McKinley stands by his avowed principles. He recalls the fact that, as a member of Congress, he spoke and voted for the present law, and says that he means to enforce it in the spirit in which it was enacted. There is every reason to believe that these words are uttered with a sincere purpose, and that they will be followed by corresponding acts.

One paragraph of the address will, we suspect, set Mr. Sherman thinking. "The several forms of our paper money," the new President declares, "offer, in my judgment, a constant embarrassment to the Government and [to] a safe balance in the Treasury. Therefore I believe it necessary to devise a system which . . . will present a remedy for those arrangements which, temporary in their nature, might well in the years of our prosperity have been displaced by wiser provisions." Considering whose fault it was that the "temporary arrangements" for the currency were not in prosperous years "displaced by wiser provisions," we imagine that Mr. Sherman may in the future be somewhat less positive about the virtues of the greenback. This side-thrust from his present executive chief recalls a similar snub received some years ago on the same question—at the very time, in fact, when the "wiser provisions" hinted at by Mr. McKinley might readily have been adopted. In his annual Treasury report of December 6, 1880, at the top wave of the trade revival, Secretary Sherman wrote: "United States notes are now, in form, security, and convenience, the best circulating medium known." In fact, he deprecated any further suggestion that they were a menace to the future. But on the very same day President Hayes, in his annual message to Congress, commented thus on his Secretary's optimism: "The retirement from circulation of United States notes is a step to be taken, in our progress towards a safe and stable currency, which should be accepted as the policy and duty of the Government and the interest and security of the people." The course of events since 1880 has sufficiently proved the wisdom of this position of a conservative Republican President; it has equally proved the futility of Mr. Sherman's theories.

The *Sun* made a very able summary of the President's inaugural, leaving out all the principal points. It omitted his declaration of adherence to the gold standard, his favoring a commission to revise the currency, and his intimation that the greenbacks should be retired. This, of course, was a little too strong doctrine to be given undiluted to *Sun* readers, who have been assured all along that nothing whatever was the matter with the currency, and that no patriot would ever talk of retiring the greenbacks. We observe that the greenback *Tribune* was also silent on this point—as, indeed, it has been ever since Mr. Gage was chosen for the Treasury. Of course the *Sun* cannot muster courage so much as to allude to Mr. McKinley's horrible views on civil-service reform; and as for his love of peace and hearty and unqualified endorsement of the arbitration treaty, the pain which they give the Jingo organ is of the kind which the hymn calls "inward." The only outward sign of anguish as yet betrayed is the remark that there are "some important omissions" in the inaugural, "some points of vagueness, and some signs of what we believe to be mistaken judgment." The howling of the Jingo robbed of its whelps will be heard later.

The Fifty-fourth Congress, which expired on Thursday, leaves, on the whole, a negative impression. No great act, either beneficial or mischievous, will be associated with it. Judged solely on the basis of the evil it might have done and refrained from doing, the verdict would not be so severely unfavorable. It did not, for example, pass the Nicaragua Canal bill or the Hawaiian cable subsidy. But a negative Congress, when the times call for a positive and constructive Congress, is of itself harmful to the public. Take the absolute and humiliating failure of this Congress to grapple with the deplorable condition of the currency and the national revenue. Take its deliberate action in voting appropriations which compel a deficit of $100,000,000. There alone is a confession of legislative imbecility and recklessness. There alone is a crushing condemnation of a body chosen to subserve the public welfare. When we add the wanton willingness of both houses in the first session, and of the Senate in both sessions, to embroil the burdened country in a needless foreign war, we get a record which, though negative as far as achievement is concerned, is positively evil in its demonstration of incapacity and irresponsibility. The worst of it is the general sense of discouragement which the Congress leaves behind it, and of concern, even alarm, over what its successor may do. The Fifty-fourth Congress was ushered in with much acclaim. At last we were to make an end of Democratic bickering and incompetency. The results are now before the country, and we observe a disposition to accept with great reserve the promises again so lavishly made in advance for the Fifty-fifth Congress.

Senatorial courtesy was severely strained during the trying final hours of the session, and remarks were made which seemed to show that the Senators have as low opinions of one another as the general public entertains of the body as a whole. A few days ago Senator Tillman declared that while he did not wish "to say anything harsh," God knew that he believed he was telling the truth when he said that the "Trusts have their hands in our [the Senators'] breeches-pockets." Senator Hawley "branded" this charge as "an unworthy slander, unworthy of any gentleman." During the last night session, Senator Hoar observed that the rules never intended to "put it in the power of one man, who in some conceivable case might be under the influence of liquor, to prevent eighty-nine men from doing business"; whereupon Senator Quay declared that if the Senator from Massachusetts intended to intimate that he (Quay) was under the influence of liquor, he was a "lunatic and a liar," and he would further characterize the intimation as a "filthy one." If Mr. Quay wishes to have it understood that this is his usual debating style when sober, there should be no objection.

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Vice-President Stevenson's farewell address shows that the Senate made no mistake when it presented him the other day with a silver service. He deserved even that certificate of character, for he in turn certifies to the greatness, the wisdom, the beneficence of the Senate, which he thinks ought to be enshrined in the loving memory of a grateful people. Almost tearfully he says: "Of those who clamor against the Senate and its methods of procedure, it may truly be said, 'They know not what they do.' In this chamber alone are preserved without restraint two essentials of wise legislation and of good government—the right of amendment and debate." This, we are glad to see, is not the view of Mr. Stevenson's successor. In the midst of the usual perfunctory remarks of an incoming Vice-President, Mr. Hobart has one telling passage in which he plainly intimates that a change of the rules and of the conduct of the Senate is imperatively demanded, and that without it the "just expectations" of the people will not be met. If Mr. Hobart keeps this great truth steadily before the Senate and the country, he may escape both the "silver service" and the general contempt with which Mr. Stevenson leaves office.

Mr. Olney kept the Cuban business in his own hands (where it belonged) to the end, in defiance of the Senate. He leaves the cabinet with a reputation won in it such as is without a parallel since the war—unless Gen. Bristow furnish the parallel. The cabinet has been mainly a place to wreck great reputations rather than to create one. Secretary Olney's direct energy and steady striking at the point have sometimes played him tricks—once, in the Venezuela business, a most flagrant one—but on the whole have been most successfully applied. Especially in one particular has he struck out an original line, in a useful fashion. He has shown how a cabinet officer may defend himself against an intriguing Congress. Without a voice on the floor of Congress, Mr. Olney has shown that he could still get the ear of the people. Twice at least he has simply transfixed the Senate and left it writhing in helpless rage. Once was when he informed the country and the world that the stock-jobbing resolution of Don Cameron, recognizing Cuban belligerency, would be ignored by the Executive even if it was adopted by both houses of Congress. That let out what little brains there was in that business. Again, on Monday week, by simply giving to the press what he had before given to the Senate in confidence, he showed how needless, how wicked, was the agitation of the country and the depression of the stock markets by the Sanguilly clamor. He has thus twice made the Senate furious, but he has made it dumb—in itself a great public blessing. It is to be hoped that Mr. Olney has, in this particular, given the cabinet a hint of the way to do it, which its members in the future will not hesitate to follow when the occasion calls for it.

The Chamber of Commerce last month suggested informally to Mr. Cleveland that it would be glad, if agreeable to him, to give him a public dinner in recognition of his "valuable financial services." To this he replied, in a characteristic letter, that the suggestion afforded him "as complete satisfaction and comfort as any other demonstration of it could do," besides which he could not feel that what he had done or attempted to do for the general welfare deserved any "special manifestations of approval," since it was all within the scope of his duty. The refusal of a "banquet" by a public man on the ground that he has merely done his duty is a novel idea. What a trick the fat-witted Mugwump idol has of doing modest, manly things!

Hart, the Philadelphia filibuster, has been sentenced to two years' imprisonment and $500 fine. His offence was being concerned in the filibustering expedition of the steamer *Laurada* in August last, and of this he was convicted on February 23; Judge Butler, who sentenced him, considered the proof against him clear. Hart sent the *Laurada*, and controlled her movements; he gave an order to send surf-boats from Camden to her below Wilmington; he concealed his identity; he directed the movements of the Cubans concerned, and met them at Atlantic City; the only debatable question was whether he had previous knowledge of the military character of the expedition, and this the jury found against him. The Judge said in imposing sentence that he had had a full and fair trial; that the offence was a grave one, involving the honor and peace of the country; that he went into it with his eyes wide open to the consequences, and for the "unworthy purpose of personal gain"; that it was the duty of the court to punish him severely. This case, and that of the *Three Friends* in the Supreme Court, show that the time has come when the use of the territory of the United States to fit out ships and hire men to go off and murder and rob in foreign countries with which the United States is at peace, must be systematically rooted out. There is no trouble with the courts, and the substantial people of the country now support warmly every enforcement of the law.

The various States keep forty-five Legislatures at work pouring out laws of one kind and another. Does any one realize that they give us every year or two something like 10,000, or that they will in fifty years produce 500,000 laws? In this State alone last year there were a thousand. Most of them, of course, are not laws, in any proper sense of the word, but represent either jobs or interference with the business of corporations, cities, towns, and villages—business which the Legislature usually botches. Paving streets and building bridges and putting up big buildings, for instance, are some of the favorite forms of legislative activity everywhere, yet if sensible men were asked who should decide about building their bridges or paving their streets or erecting their city halls, the very last body in the State that they would call in would be the Legislature. A great deal of their work is of such a nature that it is difficult to tell whether it is not the result of insanity on the part of some one or more of its promoters. A bill has been introduced in the Kansas House, and it is said will probably pass, making violations of the Ten Commandments criminal offences, punishing "having any other God" with a fine of $1,000, and making theft, perjury, and covetousness punishable with fine or imprisonment, at the discretion of the court. This is attributed to "Populism," but think what a rabble must have got into a state-house when such a bill can be introduced and seriously discussed. On the same day the Kansas Senate was thrown into great excitement by two members who said that they had been offered $1,000 for their votes, and there was much feeling on the subject. Bribery is the only natural means of getting laws passed in such a body, and "the path will be trod."

Kansas City some years ago passed an ordinance compelling every one to vote, under a penalty of $2.50. The courts have declared the measure unconstitutional, and have been overruled by the *Harvard Law Review*, which says that the matter was disposed of by Mr. C. E. Shattuck in an article contributed by him to its pages (4 Harv. L R 365). The question whether it is unconstitutional or not is perhaps of less importance than the question whether it is foolish. The reason why the franchise has always been considered a privilege is because people have wanted to vote; and as long as they do want to vote there is no need of making it a penal offence to stay at home. On the other hand, there is in every election, even Presidential elections, a considerable proportion of voters who are compelled by illness, by business, or other causes which concern themselves primarily, to stay at home, or to be absent from home, in other States, or abroad. In a large city like New York there are many thousand such cases; in the whole country in a Presidential election there may be many hundred thousand. In other elections, too, there are sometimes many thousand voters who do not vote because one candidate does not represent their ideas, and the other candidate is unfit for office. In some cases neither candidate is fit for office.

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Any law which should undertake to treat all these abstainers as criminals would certainly be very difficult of enforcement, and very barbarous in operation, if the penalty were severe. Hence, perhaps, the low Missouri figure of $2.50. We know a good many people, even in this meek and long-suffering community, who would "clear out" altogether if visited with any substantial punishment because they preferred to stay at home rather than vote for Sheehan on one side or a creature of Platt's on the other. If good nominations are made, there is no trouble about getting out the vote; and if nominations are bad, staying at home is often a useful protest. Whenever voting ceases to be of interest to the bulk of the community, it will be from despair of effecting anything, and driving us up to the polls to exercise a right we don't care to exercise would be a waste of time. On the other hand, let us implore legislators taking the matter up to remember that in many parts of the country $2.50 is still a small sum of money. In some States the danger of losing this sum might bring every man to the polls; but it is not so in all States. If the continuance of free institutions is to rest on compulsion, we should insist on a higher figure. It would give but a poor idea of us abroad if we came to be looked upon as a body of freemen caring so little for liberty and so much for money that we could be kept free only by the danger of losing $2.50.

The insidious nature of political corruption is well shown in the case of the member of the Montana Legislature who has just been expelled. He testified before the investigating committee that at different times in the session he had "found" in his room sums of money ranging as high as $200, and that he had been in the habit of using parts of such sums for or against certain pending bills. He saw nothing wrong in this. There may be nothing wrong, but there certainly is something strange, almost supernatural. Was it a mere chance coincidence, as seems to be suggested, that he should "find" the money just when it was needed? And how could he tell exactly what bills to use it for or against? If his account of the matter is the true one—and we read that he testified to the truth of it "in the most nonchalant manner possible"—we see corruption working with a silent and irresistible power like that of fate. To expel a man for not resisting this seems as unreasonable as to expel him for not resisting gravitation. But perhaps he was expelled for confessing that he used only "parts" of the money to bribe his investigators.

Some surprise is expressed by the legislators at Albany because so few of our citizens take the trouble to go up there to oppose the passage of the proposed new charter, but he must be a very dull legislator who does not know why this is the case. Why should anybody take the trouble to go to Albany on a perfectly useless errand? Why should time and energy be expended in making serious arguments before committees who will not pay the slightest heed to them, but will act in blind obedience to "orders" from an express office in lower Broadway? Everybody at all familiar with our present system of government in this State knows that the fate of the charter hangs entirely upon the will of Mr. Platt; that if he wishes it to become a law and go into effect at the next election, the Legislature will carry out his wishes. Argument or reason has nothing whatever to do with the question. If Mr. Platt thinks it will be "good politics" to pass the charter, it will be passed, otherwise not. He assumes full power over the subject in his public utterances, and declares that it is his wish that the charter shall pass. If that is his real intention, it is a waste of time for anybody to go to Albany to plead with his agents in the Legislature. The only effective use of influence is with him, so far as legislative action is concerned. This is undoubtedly the view of opponents of the charter, of whom there is no lack in this city. They have hopes, which are not without good foundation, that the political unwisdom of passing the charter this year will induce Platt to give "orders" for its defeat or postponement. The signs of the times are all in one direction, and point to a political reaction in the State this fall.

The action taken by the Century Club at its meeting on Saturday evening, excluding from its files and its club-house the *World* and the *Journal*, is another step towards the extirpation of a social pest. The movement has now become a popular one, and may be expected to extend far and wide. It ought to find imitators throughout the nation. There are other filthy publications in other cities that ought to be put under the ban equally with the two which have been excluded by the Century Club. It is possible for the decent people in the several communities to reform these journals and save their children from the moral blight which threatens them, by putting such a stigma upon them that the mass of unthinking people who now support them will drop them, and, when they do so, the reform will come. It is simply a question of dollars and cents with the publishers of these vile sheets. Whenever they find that dirt does not pay, they will stop publishing dirt. Clubs and public libraries can hasten this consummation if they will by making dirty newspapers unfashionable.

Japan's coming abandonment of the silver standard is an *et-tu-Brute* blow to our silverites of the free and independent kind and of the slavishly international sort. Japan, alluded to in a large way as "the Orient," has long been a tower of strength to them. Free silver coinage might have its risks, but how about the Oriental trade? We might ourselves manage to worry along on the gold standard, but could you hope that the Japanese ever would try it? Besides, there was that terrible par of exchange which we must contrive to keep from being dislocated, and doing something for silver was the only way to accomplish this. But this "Asian mystery" of bimetallism is now fast crumbling to dust. First India shut her mints to silver; then Russia, already a great Asiatic power, and destined to be greater, took herself out of the ruck of silver-using nations; now Japan leaves the sinking ship. Yet our humbug Congress chooses this moment to pass without dissent an insincere bill for an international silver conference.

The constitutional change which President Krüger is trying to introduce in the Transvaal is very like a proposition in this country to take away from the Supreme Court the right of passing on the constitutionality of laws enacted by Congress. In the Transvaal the High Court has been in the habit of setting aside laws of the Volksraad not in accordance with the fundamental law of the republic. Krüger wants this stopped, and has now had the Volksraad adopt a declaration that the judges of the High Court shall take an oath renouncing the right to apply a constitutional test to any laws passed. He says that this is necessary in order to overcome the machinations of Cecil Rhodes, and that the Judges must "abide by the voice of the Raad or go." This is good Populist doctrine, and the uproar in the Transvaal over its attempted application hints at the sort of thing it would lead to here.

Greece has replied to the ultimatum of the Powers, if there was an ultimatum, which Mr. Balfour denies. Her reply is a practical refusal, though couched in language of studied courtesy, to withdraw her troops from Crete, and a pretty effective argument against the plan of the Powers to set up an autonomy in Crete under Turkish suzerainty. The reply is adroit, and will doubtless lead to further negotiations before force is resorted to by the Powers. Indeed, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs distinctly stated on Monday that France would undertake no operations against Greece without the consent of the Chamber. The thoroughly artificial character of the present situation is well shown in the fact that upon Italy's admiral in Cretan waters devolves the initiative in proceedings agreed upon by the allied fleet, while the peninsula is, as our correspondent shows on another page, in a fever of popular sympathy with the insurgents.

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THE NEW CONGRESS AND ITS TASK.

THE extra session will evidently not be the swift and simple thing that some swift and simple people have imagined. It is already complicated by the failure of four great appropriation bills. One of these, the General Deficiency bill, failed because the strife of the jobbers was so rancorous that they could not agree in time to pass it at all. The others—the Indian Appropriation bill, the Agricultural and the Sundry Civil bills—failed because they were so stuffed with jobs and stealings that Mr. Cleveland would not put his name to them. These bills must all be passed before June 30 in order that the Government service may be carried on. They will therefore have to be considered before the new tariff bill. But it is said that they will speedily be repassed just as they were, and this will take no time to speak of. This, however, is to overlook the nature of a bill like the Sundry Civil. Before it can be reported and passed, two-thirds of the members of the House have to have something "good" in it. It was so with the bill which Mr. Cleveland refused to sign. It was incubated for many months until the necessary two-thirds was secured to suspend the rules and pass the bill—appropriating the bagatelle of $50,000,000—without debate, which was done. But now the work will have to be undertaken afresh. The membership of the House is greatly changed, and the new two-thirds will have to be secured by new balancing of job against job. This will take time. And who knows but President McKinley may veto it when done, on the ground taken in his inaugural address that this is a time for the severest economy? In any case, we think those who are flattering themselves with the thought of a sixty-day or a ninety-day session are reckoning without their host.

As the time draws near for the new tariff bill to be completed and presented to Congress, the difficulties of its framers do not lessen. The case of cotton-ties is typical. American manufacturers are now supplying them at 20 per cent. less than the English price, duty-free. What is the use, then, of a duty on cotton-ties either for revenue or for protection? The only defence for such a duty, as, indeed, for duties all along the list of the iron and steel schedules, is that Americans should be given a chance to combine and put up prices under cover of protection. But, in that case, where will the needed revenue come in? Take the item of wool. During the past month more than 38,000,000 pounds of wool were sold in this country, as against 23,000,000 for the previous largest record for the corresponding period—in 1893. This is only one of many signs that the woollen mills are stocking up with free wool for a year or so in advance. It is, of course, only human nature and hard business sense that they should. This being the case, how is the restored duty on wool either to bring in revenue or to give the farmers higher prices for the first twelve months? It can do neither, to any appreciable degree; and the chief result of the new wool duties will be what the result of the McKinley duties in 1890 was, to throw the woollen manufacture into confusion and to enrage the embattled Ohio wool-growers afresh.

A telegram to the *Herald* says that the tariff committee at Washington intends to adopt measures, the nature of which is not indicated, to prevent persons from importing foreign goods in anticipation of increased duties. Whether the importers are to be sent to jail or whether their goods are to be confiscated after they arrive, is not known. That something hitherto undreamed of is in contemplation, is clearly intimated. This, and other semi-barbarous devices that have been talked of, point to the belief that the high-tariff fanatics think that, as they have silenced the Bryanites, they can do anything they please without criticism or opposition, and that they can do the McKinley Act of 1890 over again, or more, without meeting the unpleasant consequences that followed that Act. If any such opinion prevails, it is a very mistaken one. The elements that hurled the Republicans from power in 1892 are all in readiness to repeat that discipline. The strength of all the forces that united to elect Mr. McKinley will be needed to support his Administration. To pass any tariff bill through the Senate will require very prudent management. To hold a majority of the House to be elected in 1898 will require cool and conservative treatment of all the leading subjects of legislation. Anything like confiscation of private property, or cruel and unusual punishment of persons engaged in foreign trade, will wreck all the high hopes centred on the last campaign.

One of the dangerous schemes in contemplation is the enactment of discriminating duties in favor of American ships, providing that goods carried in foreign bottoms shall pay higher rates—an old relic of barbarism abandoned in our legislation some sixty years ago. This particular scheme is identified with the name of Sewall, who ran as the colleague of Bryan in the last campaign. Sewall was the President of the American Marine Association, which was formed for the purpose of reviving this old, exploded policy. He was nominated at Chicago evidently in the interest of that project, but without any suspicion of the real motives except in a very limited circle. Mr. Sewall was an unknown man. His nomination was a surprise to everybody. The explanation of Sewall came when his connection with the scheme for discriminating duties was revealed. The trouble produced in his own party then became so serious that he felt obliged to resign the presidency of the American Marine Association. Now it is proposed that the Republican party shall help him out by enacting these discriminating duties, the first consequence of which would be a series of similar retaliatory enactments against our ships by foreign countries, all resulting in added burdens on the taxpayers without benefit to the public treasury.

The restoration of the reciprocity features of the McKinley tariff is also going to be a bothersome matter. Senator Burrows has sorrowfully announced that it will not be possible to restore reciprocity. But this was before President McKinley had declared in his inaugural that it must be restored. Still, the question remains, how is it to be done? Free sugar was the corner-stone of reciprocity in 1890. No one supposes that sugar will be free in the new bill. Something might be done with Argentina and Australia if wool were left free, but it cannot be. Will the tax on hides be revived, to comfort the New England Republicans? Truly the way of the reciprocal tariff-maker is a hard one this year. About all that is left him is to fall in with the suggestion of Congressman Dolliver, and give the President power to levy duties at his own sweet will on the imports of all countries that do not treat our exports "right." Treaties and laws and common sense are against this, but reciprocity must be had, no matter how high it comes.

THE "THREE FRIENDS" CASE.

THE laws of this country provide (U. S. R. S., sec. 5283) that every person who, within the limits of the United States, "fits out and arms, or attempts to fit out and arm, or procures to be fitted out and armed, or knowingly is concerned in the furnishing, fitting out, or arming of any vessel," with the intent that she shall be employed in the service of "any foreign prince or state, or of any colony, district, or people, to cruise or commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, or property of any foreign prince or state, or of any colony, district, or people with whom the United States are at peace," etc., shall be fined not more than $10,000 and imprisoned not more than three years. It is further provided that the vessel shall be forfeited, one-half to the use of the informer and one-half to that of the United States.

The *Three Friends* was libelled in the United States Court for the Southern District of Florida, as a Cuban filibuster, on the ground that she was fitted out and armed to be employed in the service of "a certain people," viz.: "certain people then engaged in armed resistance to the Government of the King of Spain in the island of Cuba, to cruise and commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, and property of the King of Spain, with whom the United States are and were at that date at peace." Judge Locke, who tried the case, decided that this would not do, because there was no allegation that the vessel had been fitted out to be

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employed in the service of any colony, district, or people recognized as such by the political power of the United States. The Supreme Court have now reversed this decision, and remanded the cause to the District Court, with instructions to resume custody of the vessel.

Had any other conclusion been reached the law, which has been in existence since 1818, would have been nullified, and the Cuban insurgents might have equipped *Alabamas* by the dozen in Florida, with the curious result that those fitting them out would in Florida have been engaged in a lawful enterprise, while the vessels, once at sea, would have been pirates. The decision of the Supreme Court has put a stop to this, and explodes the fallacy on which Judge Locke's decision rested. It all comes from a confusion between our obligations as a neutral between two belligerents and our obligation to prevent the use of our territory for acts of war against states with which we are at peace. Our duty to observe neutrality between Spain and Cuba could arise only out of a state of war between them, and this state of war is a fact the existence of which it belongs to the political department of the Government to determine. It cannot well be investigated by the courts, we may add, because they have no machinery for carrying on investigations into the political condition of foreign states, and no means to take proof upon such a question unless it is brought before them incidentally in an ordinary lawsuit, in which case a final decision that belligerency existed might not be reached till the war was over and done with. For these reasons, the fact of belligerency is determined by the other departments of government (and usually the Executive) which have the means of inquiry. Now no state of belligerency has yet been found to exist in Cuba; consequently there is no neutrality on our part, and the only state which we can possibly know in the matter is Spain.

But the fact that we know of no public war between Spain and Cuba does not absolve us from preventing our territory from being used by filibusters to attack Spanish authority in Cuba, and does not prevent a court from taking cognizance of the fact that a filibuster may be fitted out for use by the Cubans against Spain. In such a case the act is an act of private war, which it is our business to put down, like any other deliberate criminal attempt to disturb the peace. In other words, the recognition of belligerency and the obligations of neutrality in the ordinary sense have nothing to do with such cases. The courts are, however, judicially informed, through various executive proclamations, of an actual revolt against Spain in Cuba, and hence must take cognizance of any attempt like that of the *Three Friends* to violate the statute.

This case, and others decided by the Supreme Court, make the whole law on the subject of the relations between the United States and Cuba perfectly plain, and there is nothing abstruse or technical about it either, for it simply grows out of the facts, and applies convenient and indispensable rules the nature of which they determine. There are three different sets of rules, corresponding to three different sets of facts.

(1.) There is the case of a colony like Cuba throwing off the Spanish authority, driving the Spaniards out of the country, and establishing an army and navy and courts of justice, collecting taxes, and making herself in fact an independent state. Independence in fact would be recognized by us as a matter of law, we should send a minister to Cuba, receive one from Cuba, hold Cuba responsible for injury to American citizens in Cuba, etc. Until such a state of facts arises, we cannot recognize the independence of Cuba.

(2.) Short of this, the Cubans may set up a government in part of the island, with an army, navy, and courts, and with a government capable of dealing with other governments, and drive Spain out of that part of the island, and in this case we should have to recognize this part of the island as a belligerent state, and accept the position of a neutral, with our ships subject to the right of search; and if the belligerency collapsed, we should have no one to look to for injuries to American citizens in this part of the island, any more than foreign nations had for injuries to foreigners in the Confederate States when they were recognized as belligerents.

(3.) There may be a rebellion, insurrection, or revolt, as there is, and in this case we are not neutrals, but a nation at peace with Spain, and having Spain to look to for injuries to American citizens, and as fully at liberty to trade with Cuba as with any other country. In this case, all we have got to do is to see that the insurgents do not use our territory to make war, and this obligation is merely an obligation to keep the peace. The fact of this rebellion may be proved by executive proclamation, and the law must always be enforced. Such is the fact and such is the law. Congress will be confronted with both, even though McKinley be President and Sherman Secretary of State.

A GREAT MEASURE.

A BILL has been introduced in the Senate at Albany making it unlawful for any person "to advertise for sale or to sell any article at less than its cost price, or at a price so low as to injure the business of another merchant." It is said to be aimed at "bargain counters," and, for all we know, may be a joke of the introducer or some of his friends who wish to cast ridicule on the anti-combination legislation now so common. Or it may be a job or piece of blackmail. It is one of the misfortunes connected with our present system of government that there is no systematic classification of legislative proposals, such as would give a clear idea of the real nature of the proposition involved. Measures are still merely designated as House Bill No. 1, Senate Bill No. 2, and so on. What they ought to have printed on them is House Joke No. 1, Senate Job No. 2, House Strike No. 3, Senate Blind No. 4; this would make everything plain, and give notice to those interested in the measure what sort of arguments should be used pro and con. If this system of classification were introduced, under what head would this bill fall?

We do not know; but whether joke, or job, or strike, or blind, or mere folly, we wish it could be debated and discussed, because it really puts in a few words the principle underlying the great anti-Trust movement which is now carrying all before it. What is so repulsive about Trusts and department stores, and all similar combinations, is not that a number of people combine to secure an end (for this is, so far as it goes, a democratic thing to do), nor that the articles in which they deal become cheaper and cheaper (there is not a single one that is not much lower than it was ten years ago), but that they make it more difficult for the small individual dealer or producer to make a living than it would be if he could only prevent prices from falling. We are all individual dealers in or producers of something, and what galls us is that some one is always offering it at a price a little lower than our own. Newspapers, for example, are sold for one and two cents, and this interferes distinctly with the strictly constitutional business of selling one for three cents. Obviously there is hardship here, and the same hardship exists wherever anything is produced or sold. What we like about this bill is that it goes to the root of the matter, and declares that any one who sells anything anywhere so low that it injures the business of any one else, shall be punished. Of course, selling below cost is prohibited because it is really no better than giving away. It may be said that giving away is lawful, but ought it to be? Though we hardly believe the author of the bill knew the fact, gifts themselves might be made a penal offence but for a decision of the Court of Appeals rendered a few years ago.

The bill is of a general nature. There is nothing special or private about it (we hear so much nowadays of the evils of special legislation), and it corresponds strictly with Blackstone's description of what a law ought to be—a rule of action prescribed by the supreme power of the State, commanding what is right or prohibiting what is wrong. If there is anything that is wrong, it is interfering with another person's business. If there is anything which is clearly an interference, it is underselling him, whether on a "bargain counter" or anywhere else. The bill is also a highly democratic measure, because it enforces equality where it has never yet

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succeeded in obtaining a foothold—in prices; and for the future makes it impossible that the price of an article in one shop should be any higher than in any other.

The great difficulty the enemies of Trusts have always encountered is that an anti-Trust law, though it looks well, is difficult of enforcement. There have been stringent anti-Trust laws on the statute-books at Washington and in the various States for years, but they are not enforced, and the only explanation offered by the newspapers is that all the attorney-generals are corrupt. Even when not corrupt, the court generally finds that the law interferes with some disgusting natural right to make contracts or earn a living or compete. That is, the very laws designed to make competition easy are set aside because they interfere with it! There would be just the same trouble about suppressing the department stores.

But this bill goes down to the very roots of social life. It is based on a rule as old as Bracton, "So use your own as not to injure another's," which applies not to Trusts, department stores, or corporations, but to the individuals who carry them on, who distribute their products, who sell their goods. It says nothing about combination or monopoly, but forbids any one to sell at a price so low that it will injure any one else. The person injured will at once put in an appearance wherever undersold, and simply insist on a restoration of former prices. If not, the right to sell at all will no doubt be at once taken away. Of course prices *would* be restored, for nobody would sacrifice his right to sell altogether merely to keep prices down. Thus prices would never change; and all this without any elaborate machinery or trouble about proof. Of course, objections may be urged against the bill—objections may be urged against any bill; but to our mind it is the most thorough of its kind that we have seen yet, and we have examined a good many.

ITALY AND CRETE.

ITALY, February 20, 1897.

CARDUCCI, invited by its President, Colonel Bedette, to join the Bolognese committee formed for the collection of adhesions to, and subscriptions for, the cause of Crete, answers:

"SIGNOR COLONELLO. I consent.

"Suddenly, to derange the carnival of cowardice whirling high and low in Europe, Greece, lance in hand, severe, serene, secure like her Goddess Pallas, has alighted in its midst. Glory be to her! The grand memories of Themistocles, Thrasybulus, Epaminondas, the great names of Canaris, Byron, Santa Rosa, seem to breathe afresh, stirring like an October wind the marsh weeds of this cemetery of Western souls. And Italy? She sent no avengers of her fallen sons in Africa because, it was said, Italian arms must be reserved for quite other causes and enterprises in Europe. Now we are 'present' and expectant.

"GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI."

The poet goes, as ever, straight to the heart of things; points to the deed to follow on the word. However diverse may have been the opinions on Italy in Africa, there is but one on Italy's duty in the East. There she must uphold the principles that informed her own struggles for liberty and independence, affirm the rights of the Cretans to throw off the Moslem yoke and rejoin the mother country, Greece. The importance of the issue is so thoroughly realized that factions and parties are silent on all others. The African question, the bank trials, even the general elections and the unknown "platform" of the Government, excite but secondary interest. The first and third pages of the papers are devoted to news from Crete, the action of the Powers, the varying phases of Russian, Austrian, German opinion, to lists of committees formed in every city headed by Milan, Genoa, Naples, by Bologna, where 1,000 well-known names appear, among them those of the Syndic and all the noted professors of the University; Rovighi offering to go to Crete as volunteer surgeon. There is a quiet, practical spirit underlying the real enthusiasm for Crete that has been steadily growing since insurrection first broke out more than a year ago.

"Crete wants money and arms, not volunteers," say the old Garibaldian chiefs in Genoa, where Stefano Canzio unfurls the flag of the Thousand; in Milan, where Maiocchi, who left his right arm on the Volturno, presides. They know by experience that men are plentiful, money scarce, in revolutionary camps; besides, they have the situation well in view. Crete in arms wanted only what she has now attained—leaders from Greece, the certainty that the mother country would not abandon her. The twenty war-ships riding in the Cretan waters signify for her that Turkish troops will not be allowed to land; the blue-jackets who have landed in Candia and Canea, Retimo and Sitia, *i. e.*, in the chief cities of the island, where alone the Moslem populations are in a majority, will at least prevent them from baking any more Christians in the oven, while Colonel Vassos continues to organize the Christians, peasants, fishermen, and mountaineers who occupy 800 villages, and number 250,000 of the 280,000 total population. All is so like our own old times—the same tactics, the same strategy. Prince George does not pounce down and take possession of the island; it is the inhabitants who, at Retimo, etc., proclaim the downfall of the sovereignty of the Sultan, the union of Crete with Greece. No! Italy need send no fighting men; arms, money, even clothing will be welcome. But what Greece prizes most is the universal expression, by veterans, monarchical clubs, students' associations, of approval and adherence to her cause endorsed by such men as Sydney Sonnino and Cavallotti (what other cause could have, even for an instant, united these old friends turned foes?), Bovio and Carducci, Imbriani and Turati, Moderates and Republicans, Conservatives and Socialists—all Italy, in short, save holy Mother Church, which, from the earliest times, with the Christian Powers that obeyed her, was ever more hostile to the Greeks than to the Turk, and to-day prefers a "faithful" fanatic to an orthodox Greek, especially since his patriarchs have scouted union with Rome till she, the impure perverter of Christian principles and apostolic doctrines, return a penitent wanderer to the fold.

The *Opinione*, special organ of the Premier, while imploring the people of Italy not to attempt to force the hand of the Government or present Italy to the Powers as desirous of war in Europe, says of the ranking naval commander in the East that "Canevaro is worthy of his mission, and will hold aloft the Italian name and prestige in seas where the banner of St. Mark, respected and feared, floated for eight centuries." Hitherto Italy has had no sins of commission against Greece as have all the other Powers of Europe. For five and twenty years (1644-1669) Venice fought for Crete, and Crete for Venice, against the Turks, and in 1715, when the grand army of the Turks attacked Corinth. When the Morea returned, by the peace of Passarowitz (1718), to the Turk, Italy and Greece for half a century became mere geographical names in Europe. In the present century their revolutions have coincided (1821, 1831). Navarino and Adrianople secured to Greece the name of a nation. In 1844 the Bandieras failed just as Russia recalled her ambassador from Athens. 1848 and 1849 were years of noble efforts and disheartening failures for European nationalities. When France and England fought to save the Turk, Italian sentiment and the majority of the Piedmontese were violently opposed to any participation in the war. Mazzini in Italy and England denounced the shame and dishonor that must ensue. When England restored the Ionian Isles to Greece, the joy and gratitude of the Italians were warmly expressed. In 1866 numerous Garibaldians, after the exodus from the Tyrol, went to the assistance of the Cretans during their fiercest revolution, and applauded the joint resolution of the United States in 1868 when they affirmed, "in the name of Christianity, civilization, and humanity, the civilized world ought to bring pressure to bear on Turkey and thus terminate the struggle in Greece," sending their ships to receive the fugitives that were denied refuge on board the English and French vessels.

In 1876 Garibaldi wrote to Celso Cerretti, who commanded the legion of old Garibaldian volunteers in the Turco Serbian war:

"All that is generous in the world ought to contribute to the liberation of Christian slaves from the hideous despotism of the Mussulmans. Assist all the populations, from Crete to the Pruth, to break the accursed yoke. Go on, accept aid wheresoever it is offered until the Turk be thrust beyond the Bosphorus; then form a confederation of free states whose frontiers shall be the Save, the Danube, the Black, the Ægean, and Adriatic Seas."

After the Turco-Russian war in 1877–78, Italy saw in Russia only the champion of nationalities. Conservatives such as Bonghi protested against the sentimental pity shown for Turkey, asking why "hideous cruelties perpetrated by a bad, weak Power should be condoned when the same infamies committed in the hour of its strength had been so strongly censured?" At the Congress of Berlin, Italy's spirit was willing, but her flesh was weak. The Cretans had proclaimed the independence of their island and union with Greece for the fourth time, and sent a memorandum to the Congress, vehemently demanding support. Italy had pledged her word to support them. Lord Salisbury had affirmed that Thessaly, Macedonia, and Crete must be annexed. When he backed out, the Cairoli Ministry merely joined the French Government in demanding that the Porte should be requested to settle the frontiers with Greece "No foreign minister of the Conservative party would have played such a contemptible part," said their partisans. Well, Visconti-Venosta, the last of the old guard, is again at the helm, and now is the time for him to show his *nobiltà*.

The French ministry is in a cleft stick; Phil-Hellenes and Greek creditors are all in favor

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of Greece. Germany is playing down to Austria, who, watching Salonica with greedy eyes, of all things dreads an uprising in Macedonia, which, says the folk-lore song, she will surely have when "lions have become lambs"; and surely covetousness blinds her policy, as any coercion of Greece or Crete will result in Greek troops and volunteers and the fugitive Cretans rushing over the borders and away. It is useless to propose "self-government" or autonomy for a people determined on national unity. This was proposed in Tuscany, advised to join with Central Italy and Modena. No, said Ricasoli, we have just renounced our old autonomy of centuries in the name of Italian unity. As for giving Crete a prince to be named by the Sultan, as in Samos, where the 42,000 inhabitants pay an annual tribute of $5,000 to the Porte, the idea is too absurd. What prince named by the Sultan could hold Crete in leash? Neither Prince George nor any member of the royal family of Greece would reign subject to the Sultan; what other prince in Europe would accept and be acceptable? Italy's experience in 1849, when princes were enthroned or restored by force, may save Europe from future errors. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PRIORITY IN WELL-DOING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I find in the last issue of the *Nation* the statement that "the Newark free public library is the first, as far as the public knows, to take a stand against the degradation of the press by refusing longer to admit to its reading-room two of the worst offenders among the daily newspapers of the country." The directors of the South Norwalk free public library and reading-room took similar action several months ago in dropping the New York *World* from its list of periodicals for the current year. *

South Norwalk, Conn., March 4, 1897.

A GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the January issue of the *Cosmopolitan*, the photographs illustrating my article "German Students and their Absurd Duels" were reproduced without my consent.

These photographs I obtained from a German friend, with the understanding that they could not be reproduced, being genuine, and on the back of each was written "Verboten hervorzubringen." After finding out that they could be used for *sketches*, in August last I sent the article and photographs to the *Century Magazine*, enclosing a letter in which I said that certain designated photographs could be used only for sketches. The article was returned to me, with a courteous letter from the editors, to this effect, that, since they would not be allowed to reproduce the photographs, they did not want to consider it.

Later I sent it to the *Cosmopolitan*. I carefully explained in a letter that certain designated photographs could be used only for sketches. After waiting six weeks, I wrote a letter to the *Cosmopolitan*, asking them, if they did not wish my article, to please return it at once. Almost by return mail I received a letter saying they were considering it for early publication. A week later (November 23) they wrote again: "The *Cosmopolitan* would be pleased to accept your article if an honorarium of $— would be satisfactory." I replied I would accept the honorarium, and also again stated, "I think you understand those photographs with the statement written on the back, 'Forbidden to be reproduced,' can only be used for sketches." To this there was no reply, nor were any proof-sheets sent me for correction; but when the January number of the *Cosmopolitan* appeared, it contained my article and the reproduction of six of the forbidden photographs.

I wrote at once, asking for an explanation. They replied that they had seen no letter of mine, nor any request not to use the pictures, and, as they did not read German, did not know what might have been written on the back of the pictures. In reply, I asked how they knew I would accept that honorarium (which had been paid) if my second letter had not been read. As to their not reading German, for the benefit of the unenlightened I had written on the back of one of the photographs a translation of "Verboten hervorzubringen." I then asked, in justice to my German friend and myself, for a public explanation. The only satisfaction that I received from them was an intimation that it would be entirely satisfactory to them for me to publish my grievance elsewhere. As the February and March numbers have appeared without an explanation or apology, it seems necessary for me to adopt their suggestion, and I ask your space for this purpose.

Katharine Farrand Reighard.

March 2, 1897.

TOADYING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe in yesterday's *Nation* some inquiry as to the origin of the verb "to toady," this verb being equivalent to those other words which represent fawning or flattering for personal advantage. I had always been curious concerning the origin of this word. I could find it in no old English dictionary, and not even in Worcester, and, where I did find it, no attempt was made to account for it.

In the spring of 1853 (if I remember the date correctly) Dr. Daniel Wilson, then Professor of English Literature in Toronto University, went to meet his wife and children, just arrived from Edinburgh in New York. He left me, as his nearest friend, in charge of the house he had taken in Toronto, where I was then living. This house had not been occupied for several years, and the areas in front of the basement windows were solidly packed with sand. It was necessary to watch the Irish laborer who used the spade, and, at the risk of being laughed at by lexicographers, I will tell you what occurred.

When the spade had reached a depth of eighteen inches, its load dropped with a heavy thud, and the sand, parting, disclosed an enormous female toad. It was certainly six inches in length. We at first supposed it to be dead, but, as we disinterred it curiously, ten tiny little toads began to creep out from under her, and to slowly crawl over her back. The weather was still cold, but the thin skin of creatures no bigger than an English shilling soon yielded to the warmth of the hot sun. As soon as they regained a full activity, they began a process of extensive massage, working with their feet for more than half an hour before the thicker epidermis of the adult conveyed the vital warmth. The whole process, so long continued, was so suggestive of fawning or coaxing that I turned to Prof. Chapman, who stood near, and said, "Well, I shall never have occasion again to ask what *toadying* means." "No," he said; "we have here a practical illustration."

When the matter was mentioned to Dr. Watson he thought it very likely that the word had a rustic origin, as it was hardly possible that farmers should not have observed something of the sort. This will interest naturalists, if it only amuses lexicographers.

Caroline H. Dall.

Washington, D. C., March 5, 1897.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since my letter of February 11 was forwarded to you, the biennial report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of California for 1895 and 1896 has appeared in print, and I hasten to supplement my recent communication with the following official announcements:

The report states that there were, at the close of last year, 98 State high schools in California—26 schools with one, 23 with two, 23 with three, and 26 with four or more teachers to each school. None of the first class are accredited; 10 of the second, 17 of the third, and all of the fourth class (26) are on the favored list. To these 53 State schools are to be added 14 private schools, and we have then the number of accredited schools (67) as given in the report. Of these schools 50 are accredited in ten and more studies, 24 in twelve and over, and 13 in fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen studies.

These statements will no doubt explain to your readers "the wonderful growth of the University of California and its *peculiar* [the italics are mine] system of accrediting" to which your Eureka correspondent so proudly refers in your issue of February 4 last. *Sapienti sat!* A Californian Teacher.

February 27, 1897.

Notes.

Capt. Mahan's 'Life of Nelson' is set down to appear next month from the press of Little, Brown & Co. It will be illustrated with nineteen portraits and plates in photogravure, and twenty-one maps and battle-plans.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have in preparation 'The Annals of Switzerland,' by Miss Julia M. Colton, and 'The History of the Waldenses,' by Mme. Sophia Bompiani.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. will shortly bring out an unpublished work by the late Capt. Sir Richard Burton, on 'Human Sacrifice among the Sephardim, or Eastern Jews, with a portrait of the author.

Ginn & Co. announce 'A Few Familiar Flowers,' by Margaret W. Morley.

Copeland & Day issue immediately 'The Husband of Poverty: A Drama of the Life of Francis of Assisi,' by Henry Neville Maugham.

A new volume of poems, 'Odes in Ohio,' by John James Piatt, is about to be published by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish 'Beyond the City Gates,' a novel of early New York life, by Augusta Campbell Watson.

Patrick Geddes & Colleagues, Edinburgh, have in hand a new edition of Miss Fiona Macleod's 'Tales,' rearranged and extended,

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in three volumes, designated respectively as Spiritual and Barbaric Tales, and Tragic Romances.

By way of celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary the house of Ulrico Hoepli at Milan will bring out 'La Divina Commedia di Dante Alighieri, illustrata nei luoghi e nelle persone,' by Corrado Ricci, with thirty plates and 400 illustrations (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The collection of these pictures of persons, places, mountains, rivers, castles, statues, tombs, etc., was begun some eighteen years ago, and is largely original and photographic, even to the taking of these views "nel punto rispondente al concetto dantesco." The examples given in the prospectus show that this is no whimsical undertaking, and that the book will be a treasure to the lover of Dante.

Together with the customary 'Annual Catalogues' of American and English publications for 1896 bound in one volume—the American containing both subject and author-indexes—we have from the same office, of the *Publishers' Weekly*, the correspondingly useful 'Annual Literary Index' of 1896, edited by Messrs. Fletcher and Bowker. It embraces, we may remind our readers, both periodicals (American and English) and collective works like volumes of essays, whose contents are thus made immediately available. It takes account, also, of bibliographies and necrology, and chronicles leading events. Not the least noteworthy feature is the author-index, which shows the select activity, at least, of the various writers whose articles and essays have been already alphabetized, and their respective mediums of publication.

A worthy compeer of *Minerva* (which in the nature of things can take but imperfect cognizance of our academic system and personnel) is Mr. Edwin Emerson, jr.'s, *College Year-Book and Athletic Record* for the academic year 1896-97 (New York: Stone & Kimball) To *Minerva* Mr. Emerson properly returns his thanks for the main scheme, and proceeds to give an alphabetical catalogue and description of all American (*i. e.*, United States) universities, colleges, and schools of learning qualified to confer collegiate degrees. He supplements this information with miscellany regarding degrees, college fraternities, colors, yells, publications, politics, together with university extension and statistics of education and illiteracy. An athletic record follows; and an index of all the professors, instructors, and college officers closes the laborious compilation. The typography is most tasteful, the presentation logical and compact. We have seldom seen the initial number of any enterprise more indicative of settled purpose or more prophetic of permanence so far as merit can command it. Doubtless errors could be found by scrutiny, and we have casually encountered them—the mass of names, facts, and figures is too great to permit of perfect accuracy; but the second issue may be expected to be freer from errors than the first, after an exchange of proofs. The index fills 30 pages in triple columns. Many interesting comparisons may be directly made by means of the line of figures as to income, students, instructors, buildings, and books which regularly succeeds the title of the college. Thus, Smith College (for women), founded in 1875, has $17,000 more income than the neighboring Amherst, founded in 1821, and nearly twice as many students and instructors; less than half as many buildings and books.

The third volume of Boston "Old South Leaflets" is freighted with twenty-five more significant documents relating to our history; Sir John Eliot, Pym, Cromwell, Milton, and Sir Harry Vane being side by side with 'New England's First Fruits,' extracts from Cotton Mather's 'Magnalia,' Gov. Hutchinson's account of the Boston tea party, Hamilton's Report on the Coinage, The Monroe Doctrine, etc. Even Columbus's Memorial to Ferdinand and Isabella on his second voyage, and the Dutch Declaration of Independence in 1581, occur here. This inexpensive library of reference having a growing importance, we think it desirable that each volume should contain a complete index to the contents of the series.

The Cambridge Edition of Lowell's Complete Poetical Works (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a welcome adjunct to the Browning and Holmes, the Longfellow and Whittier, of the same series, and has been edited in the same praiseworthy manner, and with exceptional interest, since Lowell's prose-remains afford such full and varied material for the annotator. This single volume, whose price brings it within everybody's reach, contains the posthumous last poems which were edited by Prof. Norton. It concludes with a chronological list of the poems and with indexes of first lines and of titles.' The embellishments are a photogravure portrait of the later Lowell and a vignette of Elmwood.

The new two-volume edition of the 'Poems of Henry Vaughan, Silurist,' which is the latest issue in the excellent "Muses' Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners), may be described, in old-fashioned phrase, as "by several hands." The text has been cared for by Mr. E. K. Chambers and Mr. Gordon Goodwin, both favorably known in connection with this series. Mr. H. C. Beeching contributes an introductory essay, brief and judicious. To supplement this, Mr. Chambers furnishes a forty-page "Biographical Note," full of minute and curious information. To the same indefatigable pen we are indebted for the bibliography and the notes. The latter are brief, and give particular attention to the parallels between Vaughan and George Herbert, for some of which the editor is indebted to an essay by our accomplished compatriot Miss Louise Imogen Guiney. Section *d* of the "Biographical Note" is devoted to that strange personage Thomas Vaughan, the poet's brother, who leads Mr. Chambers far afield—as far, indeed, as the whole question of modern French Satanism and the vagaries of "Miss Diana Vaughan." Those of our readers who meet these curious matters for the first time will be diverted; others, who have read the *Procès des Templiers*, will doubtless agree with Mr. Chambers in suspecting that he has taken Miss Diana too seriously. However this may be, it is probably well to have these things on record in a place accessible to literary students.

Prof. Grant, of Yorkshire College, Leeds, has performed a service in editing Canon Rawlinson's translation of Herodotus in two handy and comely volumes (Scribners). He has turned the Roman names of deities back into Grecian, but has otherwise left the text substantially unimpaired; has omitted the appendixes altogether, and has abridged the notes on a sane principle involving no real loss. Some new maps in the letterpress, of Marathon, Thermopylæ, Platæa, and Salamis, explain those battles. The brown cloth bindings are simple and effective.

Something less than a year ago our French correspondent reviewed at length in these columns the Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot, and the work now appears Englished by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos in one volume (D. Appleton & Co.). The version, if not strictly idiomatic, is fluent, the print is large, and there is a good index. There are photogravure portraits of the Duke and Duchess of Reggio.

The two volumes of 'Occasional Papers' of the late Dean Church, which his daughter has collected and the Macmillans publish, consist almost entirely of reviews of books contributed to the *Guardian*, the *Saturday Review*, and the London *Times*. Miss Church has saved little of a merely ephemeral interest—though some of the ecclesiastical questions discussed seem now dead enough—and it is not only the Dean's friends who will find much to interest them in these gleanings from his casual work. Those familiar with his writings will expect to find here the knowledge, the judicial temper, yet the incisive force which mark Dean Church's style, nor will they be disappointed. In addition they will find some interesting bits of personal portraiture. The characterization of Mark Pattison, for example, is powerful, and impresses one as somehow striking nearer to the centre than do Mr. Tollemache's more leisurely notes on the Rector of Lincoln.

Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet's 'Rich and Poor' (Macmillan & Co.) is intended for English readers; but it is so full of wisdom that we can most earnestly commend it to the charitably disposed of this country. One of its merits is that it is written, as Mrs. Bosanquet says, in such a way as to avoid economic controversy, although by no means so as to suppress the "economic conviction" that character "is one amongst other economic causes, and as such cannot fail to have an economic effect. In other words, I maintain that if you can make man or woman more honest, sober, and efficient than before, he will not only be more likely to find an opportunity of rendering services to the community (*i. e.*, to find work), but will also, by his higher range of wants, increase the opportunities of other people (*i. e.*, increase the amount of remunerative employment)." This passage indicates the spirit of the book, and we shall only add that in her sobriety of judgment, intelligent recognition of the lessons of experience, and due estimate of what is both desirable and practicable in attempts to uplift those who are cast down, Mrs. Bosanquet has set an admirable example.

The astonishing differentiation which characterizes modern science is illustrated by Prof. W. Biedermann's (of Jena) 'Electro-Physiology,' translated by Frances A. Welby and published by Macmillan in an octavo of more than 520 pages. This is devoted to the theory of the electrical excitation and to the electro-motive reactions of excitable tissues. Nine-tenths of it is taken up with the structure, the change of form under activity, the excitation and the electro-motive action of muscle, and the other tenth with the electromotive action of epithelial and gland cells. We can only present it to advanced students as the latest exposition of this segment of physiology, without further comment than that the style is not as simple as one might hope for in English, and that the book will probably remain the standard authority, despite, or perhaps because of, its technicality, for a long time to come.

Dr. S. E. Reynolds's 'Hygiene for Beginners' (Macmillan), which is fairly described by its title, includes an outline of anatomy and physiology, and its statements may be accepted.

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Although specially written for the climate and conditions of England, the higher-grade common schools of this country may conveniently use it. The moderate diffuseness of style may not be a disadvantage to pupils who do not care to have their facts packed too closely.

Serious-minded cyclists will find in 'Bicycles and Tricycles,' by Archibald Sharp (Longmans), a sober and intelligent source of instruction in the mechanics of cycle construction and behavior. The book is illustrated with numerous and excellent cuts. The 530 pages are divided into three parts: Part i. is a formal presentation of elementary mechanics, with examples taken from the wheel; Part ii. contains an account of the historical development of the various types of cycles and a discussion of the problems of stability, steering, resistance, etc.; while Part iii. (256 pages) deals with the numerous details of construction.

John Lane (The Bodley Head) announces that, beginning with the present month, the London *Studio* will appear simultaneously with the English edition from the above office in New York, differing in contents only in a special American supplement conducted by Ernest Knaufft.

A remark of Washington Irving apropos of Cooper combines truth and brevity in such a degree as to entitle it to a place in all collections of epigrams on the literary profession. Mr. M. A. D. Howe thus quotes it in the March *Bookman:* "In Irving's diary, a few weeks before his death, he wrote of Cooper, 'In life they judge a writer by his last production; after death by what he has done best.'" Mr. Howe ought to have been either more or less particular in his citation; he should have omitted the quotation-marks or else given the remark as Irving wrote it, which was not in his diary, shortly before his death (that is, in 1859), but soon after Cooper's death, in a letter dated October 6, 1851, addressed to the editor of the *Knickerbocker Magazine*. Here it is as published in November of that year: "When an author is living, he is apt to be judged by his last works, and some of those written by Cooper in recent years have been somewhat cavilled at. When an author is dead, he is judged by his best works, and those of Cooper excited enthusiasm at home and applause throughout the world."

The Chicago monthly illustrated magazine, the *International*, begins in the March number a new feature called an "international register" of first-class passengers leaving American for foreign ports, together with a list of vessels and their sailing dates. The names are classified by State and town, with references to the respective vessels embarked on. It is intended to cover the Pacific Coast exodus in time. Such a record, permanently kept up, may come to have an historic utility.

The most noteworthy article in the last *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie is M. Cuny's account of the Congo Français, its native races and their distinctive customs, the quality of the soil and its productions, and the commercial value of the country. A sketch-map shows the distribution of the tribes and the various articles of commerce. In M. Douliot's journal of his travels on the west coast of Madagascar is an interesting passage describing a region in which, he says, "one may go for two days and not see an inch of uncultivated ground nor a free man." The plantations of rice, maize, sorghum, and bananas were tilled by slaves, people of a different race from the ruling classes, the Sakalava. He adds, however, that "the benefactors of humanity need not seek to abolish slavery here, which is disappearing of itself; the masters are dying and the slaves are conquering the land by their labor." There is also a strong appeal for the construction of a railway from Saigon to Bassac on the Mekong, which, it is argued, would make Saigon the principal commercial port of the far East.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for January opens with an account of the twenty-nine principal volcanoes of Salvador and southern Guatemala. This is followed by Dr. Hassentein's notes on the expedition of Dr. Donaldson Smith in Somaliland and Gallaland, in connection with a new map of this region compiled from the most recent sources. Dr. Hassentein characterizes the results of the expedition as "incontestably among the most significant in modern African discovery." A review of the history of Polar exploration is accompanied by a beautiful map showing the boundary of the unknown region around both poles, together with insets showing the progress of exploration during the present century.

At a banquet recently given by the American students in Paris, and presided over by Mr. Eustis, the United States Minister, M. Lavisse paid this compliment to the teaching of the classics in this country: "The instruction of antiquity is so well provided for in your country that the day will perhaps come when European students, wishing to find all the means for the study of Greece and Rome united, will cross the Atlantic"—a prophetic vision, hyperbolic, no doubt, yet seeming less extravagant if the strongly organized classical instruction in our higher institutions be considered by the side of the steady encroachments of modern studies upon the monopolizing power of the classics in the institutions of Continental Europe. The levelling process now at work may ere long reduce M. Lavisse's fancy to a possible reality.

An *enquête* among the medical organizations in Bavaria, like the one made heretofore in Prussia, goes to show that the majority of German physicians still cling to the existing order of things so far as concerns the preparation of medical students. On the other hand, Prof. Dr. Kewitsch of Freiburg pleads earnestly for the admission of graduates of the real-gymnasia to medical studies, on the ground of the more suitable preparation furnished by these schools, and of the undesirable and costly prolongation of the university course, at present nine semesters, with the near prospect of an additional semester—made necessary by the inadequacy of gymnasial education.

—There are several readable articles in the *Century* this month. Gen. Horace Porter does not make his "Campaigning with Grant" more than barely readable, partly because he does not seem to have very much that is new to tell us. His papers are interesting chiefly as a picture of Grant, and Gen. Porter evidently belongs to the school of historians who object to hero-worship. Some people use the adjective "common" as a term of eulogy, as implying an unexclusiveness, a readiness to mingle and fraternize with the common herd, and Gen. Porter would apparently like to have Gen. Grant painted as a "common" man in this sense. There is danger, however, in the attempt, for it was not this quality which made him a great man. Mr. C. C. Buel's "Our Fellow-Citizen of the White House" is valuable as giving an account of the routine of the President's life at Washington. It throws a lurid light on the cares of office. It seems that the President receives in the busy season upwards of a thousand letters a day, and in the dullest times two hundred. Appeals for charity often mount up to twenty thousand dollars a day. A cognate article is Mr. J. B. Bishop's historical summary of "Inauguration Scenes and Incidents." Among other illustrated articles are W. A. Coffin's on the Decorations in the New Congressional Library, and A. R. Spofford's on the Library itself. Capt. Mahan's "Nelson at Trafalgar" completes his Nelson series. We notice that in the text the celebrated signal is given, as usual, "England expects every man to do his duty." The facsimile signal at p. 741 makes it "*will* do" instead of "to do," and gives the flags supposed to represent it.

—In *Harper's*, among the illustrated articles are Mr. C. F. Lummis's continuation of his "Awakening of a Nation," Mr. J. W. Collins's "Decadence of the New England Deep-Sea Fisheries," and Poultney Bigelow's Part V. of "White Man's Africa." Captain Mahan writes about "Preparedness for Naval War"; and though he does not exactly say so, everything that he does say goes to show that the United States never can be prepared for war in the sense that any other great Power now is prepared. To be prepared for war in the sense of the old maxim—if you wish peace prepare for war—means, either to be armed to the teeth on land and sea, or else, in the case of a Power like England, to have a navy equal to the navy of any two Powers that may attack you. Capt. Mahan insists that the United States is "insular," but he does not insist that we must imitate England; and the fact is, to say that we are "insular" is not true. Having Mexico on the south and Canada on the north does not make an island. The great fact about the United States is that no foreign Power would, in the ordinary course of events, ever care to attack it, and therefore if it were to prepare for war, it could only be a war of aggression, which would be entirely opposed to our own interests. That we ought to have a small but good navy may be true, but has anybody ever objected to it? But we shall never prepare for war in order to secure peace, because we know perfectly well that nobody wants to attack us. That is the reason why the politicians bully and threaten and roar so at Washington.

—Mr. Richard Harding Davis contributes to *Scribner's* an entertaining article on the *Banderium* of Hungary—the millennial celebration of the founding of the Hungarian kingdom held last year in Pesth. For any one who cares for pageantry it must have been a fine show; there is less unreality about pageantry the further east one goes in Europe. An Hungarian magnate, as he appears in Paris or at Monte Carlo, may be a quiet, commonplace "cit." In Hungary, attired in his official costume, resplendent with purple and velvet and jewels, and mounted on a barbed steed, he takes the beholder back several centuries. He is a magnate, and probably a great land-owner to boot, with a dependent peasantry, and herds of horses and cattle and buffaloes, and a resident priest to take care of the peasants' souls, and all the paraphernalia of an antique society. Mr. Davis is clearly Hun in his sympathies, for he asks, "What excuse have the Austrian royalties ever offered for their right to exist?" and suggests that the next King of Hungary

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may not be an Austrian. This seems rather harsh on Franz Joseph, who is an estimable man; would it not have been fairer to let him see a proof of the article, and to have given him a chance to abdicate quietly before printing his doom? Lewis Morris Iddings's "Art of Travel," a first paper, contains a good many useful hints.

—John Fiske's article on the Arbitration Treaty is the most noticeable paper in the *Atlantic*. He remarks upon the fact that, in the nature of things, it is not at all impossible that, in time to come, sentiment may play a powerful part in favor of peace, as it has in the past in favor of war, between England and America. He points out that, in the days of Alexander Hamilton, there was very little love for the Federal Union in any part of this country; the Federalists, by creating the Union, and binding to its support a group of important interests, called into existence a sentiment which, two generations later, became an ardent love of country, and made the disruption of the Union out of the question. Mr. Fiske calls this a group of "selfish" interests, but we should rather call them social. There is nothing especially selfish in the desire to be more united, to establish justice, to ensure tranquillity, to promote the general welfare, to secure the blessings of liberty to the community, or even in the desire for common self defence. People grow attached to arrangements which promote these objects, and so in the end come to love the mere name, like that of the Union, which symbolizes them, and are willing to die for it. Patriotism, as a sentiment, grows chiefly in this way; and, on the other hand, a government which steadily failed to promote these objects would end by producing not patriotism, but dislike of the symbol. Thus, some people dislike the name of New York, because it represents to them failure to promote social interests, and predatory and anti-social barbarism. Mr. T. W. Higginson's "Cheerful Yesterdays" are always worth reading, and the number contains a curious article on "Legislative Shortcomings" by Mr. Francis C. Lowell, who has had a legislative experience of two years in the Massachusetts House. Mr. Lowell does not see that, in defending his legislators against the common charge that they are not generally "men of good standing in their several communities," he throws a light upon their real character which shows them to be unfit for the work they are sent to do. The first object of the individual member, he candidly says, is to secure the passage or defeat of a local measure. Everything else is secondary. *Cadit quæstio.* An assembly made up in this way is composed of men who have not the first qualification for legislating. This is, that local interests shall be in their minds secondary to general interests. The Massachusetts Legislature may be the best there is left; but it consists of very poor stuff, *teste* Mr. Lowell.

—We have received the first two volumes (A to AUE) of an elaborate "Library of the World's Best Literature," to be completed in forty-five volumes (New York: The International Society). The editor-in-chief is Mr. Charles Dudley Warner. He has three "associate editors," and is assisted by a "council" of eleven well-known American scholars and men of letters. The plan of this new enterprise is interesting and should be practicable. The intention is to give rather copious extracts from a very wide range of authors, with biographical and critical introductions. The literature of all nations is to be represented, but everything is to be in English. The arrangement is alphabetical. The authors excerpted are very various indeed: Aeschines, Agassiz, Alfred the Great, Miss Alcott, St. Thomas Aquinas, Almquist, W. H. Ainsworth—these names will illustrate the inclusiveness of the project. Mr. Warner's purpose, as he himself tells us in his preface, is not to confine the extracts to authors severely classical, but to furnish a great mass of miscellaneous reading, all of it worth while from some point of view, and to make the collection as attractive as possible. The introductory notes are of all sorts: some are written by eminent specialists, others have the air of being put together "in the office"; almost all, however, seem well enough suited—and some are remarkably well suited—to the purpose of the book. In addition to these extracts from particular authors, the "Library" will contain, in due order, various articles of a more general character. Such are, in the volumes before us, Prof. Toy's "Babylonian and Assyrian Literature," Dr. Gottheil's "Arabic Literature," Mr. Richard Jones's "Arthurian Legends" (not very well done), and others, all of which give not only discussion, but specimens. As this interesting enterprise goes on, we shall of course acquaint our readers with its progress. If it is editorially as well cared for as we hope, it will tend, distinctly, to the encouragement of reading and the cultivation of a taste for good literature among our people.

—At the February meeting of the Oxford Society of Historical Theology, Mr. Louis Dyer read a paper on "Primitive Animism and the Homeric View of Nature." Messrs. Lang's and Robertson Smith's analyses of the animistic stage of religious consciousness were criticised as involving an initial line, drawn before experience, between man and things, and as making the dawning of religious thought a process of obfuscation. The animistic fancies of primitive man came to him, we know not how, possibly along with his experience in dreams as a crude intuition based upon a felt analogy—felt but not understood. Instead of reasoning out the analogy, the savage may have objectified it, *i. e.*, proved it by taking it for granted. Primitive man had no defined or workable notion of himself as a unit apart from his tribe, sept, or clan. The dawning conception of individualized personality connected itself rather with intimations of that higher power which gave sanction to the peremptory rules of taboo. Homer was far away from crude totemistic conceptions and taboo. There might be, however, some survival of the primitive confusion of mind, and failure to individualize, in the composite nature of the Olympian god. In Homer's day the love, the caution, the wonder, and the fear with which primitive man viewed animals, trees, stones, and all nature, had centred upon clearly individualized gods, detached more or less from the kingdoms of nature, but bearing a birth-mark of primitive thought, impersonating among other things the failure of primitive man to draw a clear line of distinction between himself and the rest of nature. Certainly we should hesitate before accepting as exhaustive the commonly accepted and purely anthropomorphic explanation of the Olympians, if it becomes plain that the idea of the individual man as a unit disentangled itself (so far as Homer can show) chiefly in the heroic nature—in connection, that is, with the growing intensity and clearness with which personality revealed itself in the gods. Under their impulse, since all the kingdoms of nature—man, the elements, and the beasts—met in their composite personality, the line of demarcation between a hero and his surroundings grew indistinct at critical moments. This appears chiefly in the similes of the Homeric poems, whose magical effect depends upon the details scrupulously, religiously added, although not relevant in the eyes of common sense or for the purposes of mere illustration—details which betray the poet's intent and devout absorption in the real life of the living animal, the growing plant, or the towering rock summoned by him to act in his story, and there for the space of a moment flashed in to take the place of Menelaus's softening heart, of the unbending will of Achilles, of the stubborn valor of Ajax, or of the untamed savagery of Polyphemus.

—Prof. Dr. Seiling of the Polytechnic Institute in Helsingfors has just published some interesting statistics concerning the higher education and public position of women in Finland. In 1884 a "Frauenverein" was founded for the elevation and improvement of the condition of women, and in 1891 a second society, called the "Union," to which men were also admitted, was established for the promotion of the same object. For more than a quarter of a century the gymnasia have been attended by both sexes, and the first woman completed the prescribed course of study and passed her examination (the so-called *absolutorium*) *in 1870; at present from* forty to sixty girls pass the same ordeal every year. These gymnasia are the best educational institutions in Finland, and have a much larger number of female pupils than the ordinary high schools for girls, although the tuition fees in the former are twice or three times as great as in the latter. The University of Helsingfors has now over two hundred women attending the different courses of lectures as matriculated students. In 1882 the degree of M.A. was conferred for the first time upon a woman; and another woman has been for several years one of the leading physicians of Helsingfors. The women of Finland are not conspicuous for literary talent: the number of authoresses is relatively small, being about thirty. On the other hand, the number of artists is remarkably large. Fully 40 per cent. of the persons represented in the art exhibition held at Helsingfors in the spring of 1896 were women who devote themselves with zeal and success not only to painting, sculpture, and music, but also to architecture.

—The 'Handbuch des Finnländischen Frauenvereins,' recently issued, contains biographical sketches of more than six hundred women who have distinguished themselves or are still prominent in public life. They enjoy the elective franchise in local or communal affairs, and are eligible to office as members of school boards and as councillors and directors in the administration of almshouses and other charitable institutions. About one thousand women are now employed in post offices, railroad and telegraph bureaux, and other departments of the public service; more than nine hundred are engaged as teachers in schools of various grades, and it is not uncommon to see among their pupils young men of eighteen who are preparing for an academical or commercial career. Three thousand at least are in banks or in trade, and more than one-third of these are either owners or independent managers of the business. Of the eighty poorhouses in Finland, fifty-two have female

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superintendents; many landed estates and all dairies are directed by women, who, in a few cases, have also founded and carried on important manufactories.

THE ENGLISH DIALECT DICTIONARY.

The English Dialect Dictionary. Edited by Joseph Wright, M.A., Ph.D., Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Oxford. London: Henry Frowde; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Part I. [July, 1896], *A* to *Ballot;* Part II. [December, 1896], *Ballow-Blare.*

THE scheme and typographical appearance of this invaluable work were briefly set forth in these columns on receipt of the first part. Now that the second part is in hand, we have a goodly portion of the whole Dictionary, and may form a judgment of the manner in which it has been, so far, executed. It may be said at once that Professor Wright is a signally competent editor, and that his work is of enduring excellence.

This Dialect Dictionary deals, of course, with dialect words and uses; but let no one infer that it deals only with words and uses unfamiliar to the literary and colloquial speech. Indeed, its greatest value, to all outside of the small circle of special students of dialect, lies in its abundant and interesting additions to the accessible history of well-known words of the common literary language. Nearly all the words of the old stock of the literary language appear in these pages, with the old senses set forth more fully, or with new examples, in connection with provincial uses. Thus, *acold, acorn, acquaint, acquaintance, acquainted, acrazed, acre, across, act,* with other well-known words, interspersed with a few unfamiliar terms exclusively provincial, occur within the compass of two pages. So *bate* in various applications, *bay,* to bark, *beetle,* a mallet, and such words, are fully treated. *Beetle* has a column and a half. The atmosphere is dialectal, but it is also literary. The longest article in these two parts is that on the immortal verb *be*—called in Noachian days "the verb *to be*." The article is nine and a half columns long, but of its kind it is appallingly good. Its kind is tabular. It is a master of forms. The procession of thought is not conspicuous, but the absence of this feature will not seem to the reader of "dialect stories" an unfamiliar deprivation. The aim is different. For example, any one who wishes to know how the verb *be,* with its supplements *am* (*art, is, are*) and *was* (*were*), has flowered out along the hedges of rural speech, may find here gathered a nosegay of all the varieties.

The vocabulary is widely inclusive, both of words and of forms. Variant forms having the status of independent words are freely entered; but here a defect must be noticed. Such variants of independent status as *alablaster* for *alabaster, ax* for *ask, ache* ("written also *aitch*" and pronounced êtsh), the older word for *ake,* which has recently usurped the spelling of *ache*—these are separately entered; but the two dialectal variants of *acorn,* namely *atchern* (*atchorn, achurn, aitchorn, hatch-horn,* etc.) and *aker* (*acker*), are drowned in a lake of quotations under *acorn.* Surely *atchern* should be separated from *acorn,* as *church* is separated from *kirk,* and as *ache* (êtsh) ought to be separated from *ake.* The editor puts under the one form *against* the distinct and older but still existent form *agains* (*agens, agins*). Under *among* he mentions the Scotch forms *imangs, imangis;* these should go under *amongs,* which is, however, not entered; and *amongs,* if deprived of its own place, should, in the conventional arrangement which the editor follows, go under *amongst,* not under *among.* So *backward* and *backwards,* which the editor properly separates; and so should be entered *beside* and *besides,* which the editor compendiously enters under one head, "*beside(s.*" No doubt these peccadilloes were due to the instigation of the great demon "Space." The reason for the separation of separate forms is clear when stated. The etymology is different. The forms and dates are always different; the uses are very often different; the proofs are different. It is incumbent upon all makers of English dictionaries, and especially of English dialect dictionaries, to rescue these submerged and huddled words, and to give them each its own place (is it not a little one?) and label.

The system of phonetic notation to show pronunciation is clear and good. The editor comes to the conclusion, "after making many experiments," that "an elaborate transcription is useless to people who have not had a practical training in phonetics," and adopts, as all scholars must who have studied the problem and made the experiments, the historical English notation—that is, the system which retains the old English, the so-called "Continental" or "Roman," values of the vowels. This is the system formally recommended by the American Philological Association in 1876, under the leadership of Profs. March and Whitney. It has been introduced by Prof. March into the latest American dictionary, is used, with considerable elaboration, in the Oxford English Dictionary, has been adopted by the American Dialect Society, and is everywhere employed, with unimportant variations, by philologists who have occasion to deal with spoken English. It may now be regarded as established. It is not likely that any scholar will ever again put forth an English dictionary in which the old Webster-Worcester-Ogilvie-Stormonth notation shall be used.

The most original part of a good dictionary is its quotations. In this dictionary the quotations are very numerous. The arrangement of them is not by date (the order of date would be of slight importance when most of the quotations are of the present century), but by "dialect"; and the dialects are determined, not by any phonetic or philologic principle or individual classification, but by the severe simplicity of place. The dialect spoken at the top of the map is placed first, that spoken an inch below next, and so across and down. This is the true "classification" by which to find what you want. The order is illuminating. Geography is no mean classifier. Order may be heaven's first law, but earth's first law is geography—seas, continents, islands, mountains, lakes, rivers, plains. Everything happens in these, or in the circumambient air. By the addition of small superior figures, [1], [2], [3], [4], etc., the abbreviations that express locality and dialect are made to serve as references to the best glossaries of the respective dialects, as given in a "select bibliographical list." This is another sacrifice to the demon "Space," but it works well enough. There are many places, however, where careful attention is required to determine to what quotation a given reference belongs. This trouble could be avoided by a vertical line or a dash between the otherwise unseparated items.

The quotations are often from the only edition of the work cited. When there are several editions no attempt seems to be made to cite the earliest. Thus, there are quotations from "Ash, 1795" (under *barse, bash, basil, bawbee,* etc.). Why not quote the first edition, 1775, where the same entries, some of them fuller than those quoted, appear? There are quotations (under *base,* etc.) from "Grose, 1790," which appear in the first edition, 1787. Under *barnacle* and *beast* there are references to "Robertson, *Phras.* (1693)." The entries are in the first edition of the *Phraseologia,* 1681. But this means that the editor has used the editions at hand, or has accepted the quotations sent to him. This is mere common sense. It were idle to attempt to give the earliest instance in every case.

A dialect dictionary might be expected to take some notice of the "realistic," if not real, "dialect" manufactured for us by the artists in this sort; and here we have some, the best and others—Mr. Hardy, of course, and Mrs. Ward, the kailyard crop, Mr. Barrie, Mr. Crockett, Mr. Watson, and the other crowding immortals of the passing hour. But Mr. Watson is unscientifically called "Ian Maclaren," without the quotation-marks, and without mention of his real name (under *argle-bargle, aye,* etc.). To a lexicographer, who should be above all an historian, a teller of the truth, pseudonyms are or should be merely individual whims or pleasantries; and "Ian Maclaren" and "George Eliot" and "Mrs. Harris" and all other masqueraders should be compelled to unmask before they are admitted to the table of lexicographic immortality.

The more important words are in many cases provided with etymologic notes. These are often new or contain new forms, with fresh references. See, for example, *bank,* v., "of clouds, to gather in masses"; *bask,* dry, bitter. The notes err rather on the side of restraint, but they are generally sound. The editor, however, has deemed it wise not to break wholly with etymologic tradition. He permits some infelicities. *Banian,* "a flannel jacket," etc., is not exactly "fr. Port. *banian* (cp. Ar. *banyān*), a Hindoo trader." It is an English formation, by a confusion and detachment from *banian-coat* and *banian-shirt,* where the first element is indeed the Arabic Hindu term indicated. *Backerly* is not from "*backer,* adj., + *-ly*"; it is a reduction of *backwardly. Ban-beggar* is not from "*ban* (to proscribe) + *beggar*"; it is a sophistication of *bang-beggar,* which the dictionary exhibits at length. The singular entry, "*Bear 'em,* vbl. sb., wood from fencing carried off at the end of work-time," should begin "*Bearing* (*bearin', bear 'em*)," etc.

The editor's scholarly caution appears conspicuously in the "List of words for the present kept back from the want of further information," which precedes the second part (p. 145). Some of these suspended words are certainly not lucid: "barmigoat," "bellaven," "blair-hawk," will seem new on this side of the water. But "*batch,* a bachelor (Sc.)," is not unfamiliar here. "*Belly-rive,* a great feast, a social gathering (Sc.)," seems to call for no "further information" than a reference. Some of the words tempt conjectural explanation. "*Biler,* the metal handle of a pail (Nrf.)," must go with *bail* in the same sense, entered in the dictionary itself, and well known in the United States. "*Bat and breed,* phr., the ground which a mower covers with one stroke of his scythe (w. Yks.)," suggests an original **bat-ten-breed,* where *batten* would have one of the senses given in the dictionary for *bat,*

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namely, "the long handle or staff of a scythe," and *breed* is 'breadth' (A. S. *brœdu*). *Banters o' Boby's*, given in the list as a figurative phrase for "destruction, death (Lanc.)," is no doubt our old friend *Tantrabobus*. This is the devil in his character as a nursery Bugaboo. Halliwell has "*Tantarabobs*, the devil, Devon," and Jago, in his 'Glossary of the Cornish Dialect' (1882), gives "*Tantrabobus* or *Tantrum-bobus*," as "a term applied to a noisy, playful child. 'Oh, you tantrabobus!'" Another form of the name is *Tantrabogus*, from which, it has been suggested by an American writer, the word *bogus* has arisen (see the Oxford English Dictionary, under *bogus*). There is a long story about Tantrabobus. It belongs to the boggart and bugaboo lore; but we must close the vista.

The editor's prefatory note declares his intention to deal with American dialects. In many instances the English dialect use is supported or amplified by quotations from American sources. But it is evident that the editor has had little American dialect material to use. Indeed, there is little American dialect material in print. The publications professing to represent "American" use, the compilations of so-called "Americanisms," the wild rakings of alleged "American" slang or of political, commercial, or journalistic cant, are, with few exceptions, thoroughly untrustworthy. They are deficient in learning, wrong in method, indiscriminate in selection, and inaccurate in detail. The best-known of these productions, Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms,' though it has gone through several editions, is open to all these censures. Its representations of American dialect are often inaccurate or wholly wrong. It mixes up real dialect, real local use, real slang, with archaic uses, high literary use, universal English use, and stirs all these up with individual caprices, isolated instances of journalistic humor or vulgarity, and of manufactured "dialect" in now forgotten "humorous" works, into an unhappy chaos of still raw material. De Vere's work is respectable but gossipy. The productions put forth under the names of Farmer and Maitland, the former of which we see quoted with apparent confidence by British writers, including the editor of the Dialect Dictionary before us, are unspeakably crude and deserve no scholarly respect. They are to be regarded literally as raw material. An American scholar who should add to his own study and observation a judicious use of the real or nominal dialect material in Lowell, Mrs. Stowe, Mr. Howells, Mr. Harris, Mr. Harte, Mr. Cable, Miss Wilkins, Mrs. Stuart, could easily provide the world with a trustworthy record of American dialect even before the American Dialect Society shall have accumulated sufficient material, and gained sufficient support, for the projected American Dialect Dictionary. In the meantime, it is but right to warn British (and Scottish) lexicographers against the notion that there is any such thing in existence as a real dictionary of real Americanisms.

The editor concludes his prefatory note to Part II. by saying that "a complete list of subscribers will be printed when Volume I. is completed." We do a service to English scholarship and to English literature when we say that every public and every college library in the United States ought to subscribe for this great international work, and that every scholar who shall refrain from possessing it, or at least using it, will be debarred from the pleasure of holding defensible opinions on half the debated points of English philology.

AMERICAN COALS.

The Story of American Coals. By William Jasper Nicholls. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

To tell the whole story of American Coal, from its genesis in the carboniferous age to its consumption in our stoves and under our boilers, is a large undertaking; and as Mr. Nicholls's book is not bulky, its treatment is of necessity sketchy and imperfect. It is a compromise between a scientific treatise and a popular exposition. Its science is borrowed verbatim from the most incongruous sources, and it does not always fit without a hiatus into the historical and descriptive details. Even the political bearing of the subject is not omitted, for the author never loses an opportunity of emphasizing the necessity of a high tariff to exclude Nova Scotia coal, in order to compensate for the higher cost of our own product when the cheaply mined surface beds have been exhausted. With a dread of Nova Scotia seems to be associated in this author's mind an aversion and jealousy of England. But, despite its defects of method and of taste, the book is a very clear and on the whole correct compendium of information on a subject of great national importance.

The story of coal-mining, whether in this country or elsewhere, is more prolific, not only of interest, but of pathos, than that of any other of our mineral industries. While the occupation of the coal-miner is fraught with exceptional danger, his remuneration is lower than that paid for similar labor. According to our author, the miner in the bituminous pits of Pennsylvania breaks on an average four tons of coal a day, at 35 cents per ton. He therefore receives for his hazardous exertions, carried on often in a cramped posture and in a vitiated atmosphere, $1.40 per day. But as he works on an average only 165 days a year, he has to support his family on $231.00 per annum, or 65 cents per day. These figures are below those of the United States Census report of 1890, which allows to the Pennsylvania anthracite underground laborer an average of $201 for 181 days, or 99 cents per day; and to the underground bituminous-mine laborer $188 for 215 days, or $1.10 per day. In any case, it is a miserable pittance for the work done and large risk incurred; but so unlimited are the coal resources, so cheaply can certain mines be opened and worked, so keen is the competition, and so variable is the demand, that it is impossible for either employer or employee to combine effectually, and thus insure the workman a higher wage or the operators a better price.

The small area within which our precious anthracite resources are confined has enabled eight great railroad corporations to secure by purchase 95 per cent. of all the anthracite land of Pennsylvania, which means more than 90 per cent. of all the discovered anthracite of the United States. These railroad companies, by mutual agreement, regulate the output and the proportion to be mined and marketed by each. Nevertheless, owing to the extravagant price at which much, if not most, of these coal lands were secured, the companies do not make excessive profits on the mining and the carriage of their product; consequently labor in the anthracite regions is even more poorly remunerated than in the bituminous, for though the pay is higher, the employment is less constant. As anthracite is widely used for domestic purposes, a severe winter secures brisk demand and steady work; a mild winter involves the reverse.

Nature has been very lavish in her gift of coal to this country, bestowing on us not only quantity, but every variety and quality; and she has so distributed it that no large section is altogether deprived of mineral fuel. The only boon she has denied us is coal on or near the Atlantic seaboard. A long internal carriage alone handicaps our coal-mines as competitors for foreign trade. This advantage Nova Scotia possesses, by the existence of extensive coal-beds immediately on tidewater, both on the mainland and on the island of Cape Breton. But the advantage is counterbalanced by the inferior quality of the coal and by a higher cost of production than that of the coals of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, with which it has to compete in our Atlantic seaports. The present duty is about sufficient to tilt the balance against Nova Scotia. Without it, her coal would compete on more than equal terms in the New England market with the product of our own mines, to the detriment of the coal interests of our Middle States, but to the corresponding advantage of our Northern manufacturers.

The dimensions of our coal-mining interest may be conceived of from the following figures. According to the census of 1890 there were employed at the mines, the country over, 268,619 hands, and as the production of coal has increased since then about 15 per cent., there must be to-day about 310,000 men and a few boys earning a scanty living from mining and preparing our coal for the market. Allowing that only four mouths are fed from the earnings of each laborer, we have 1,240,000 dependent upon coal-mining alone, or 1¾ per cent. of the total population. Almost as many more must be employed in the transportation of the coal and coke to the market. This large section of the population mined and handled, in 1895, 53,000,000 tons of anthracite (all from Pennsylvania with the exception of about 1,000,000 tons from Arkansas, Colorado, and New Mexico) and 135,000,000 tons of bituminous coal. The value of this great bulk of fuel at the mines was $197,769,043, or about two and a half times the market value of all the gold and silver produced in 1895 in the United States. The anthracite of Pennsylvania alone was sold at the mines for almost exactly the market value of our precious metals in 1895; yet the former never enters as a factor into national politics, while some would predicate the dependence of our very existence on the latter.

While the anthracite is the inheritance of Pennsylvania alone, bituminous coal is mined in all but fourteen States and Territories of the Union. Pennsylvania leads with fifty-two million tons, and Illinois, whose coal area is four times that of Pennsylvania, follows with eighteen million. But between these there is a difference, not only of quantity, but of quality. Vast as is the volume of coal in Illinois, Kansas, and other prairie States, and invaluable as it is locally, the quality (both of coal and of coke) is inferior to that of the product of the great Appalachian Basin, which therefore monopolizes the shipping trade even to interior points. The coal of the Cumberland region, Maryland, finds its way all over the continent for blacksmithing purposes, while the cokes of Connellsville, Pa., and West Virginia are shipped to Arizona and Montana, a distance of more than 2,000 miles, by railroad, though inferior cokes are manufactured with-

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in as many hundreds of miles from the furnaces consuming them.

The wonderful growth of our coal industry within a little more than half a century is attributable to influences, some of which are both effect and cause. In 1840 we numbered only 17,000,000 of population, and then our forefathers heated their houses largely with wood. About a million tons of anthracite for all purposes were then mined. Our population now reaches 70,000,000, and if we estimate that only one ton of coal is used for domestic purposes per head of the population, our consumption for that item alone will reach some 70,000,000 tons. But this torrent of population would not, and could not, have flowed into and over the land had it not been for the railroad and the steamboat, which are directly the next largest consumers of our coal. Thirty million tons, at least, are burned annually in our locomotives, and half as much more must be consumed in our lake, river, and ocean steamboats, or about 25 per cent. of the whole. Metallurgists are probably the next largest consumers. In 1840 our forefathers made only some 300,000 tons of pig iron, and this was reduced from the ore in great measure by charcoal. To-day we make 9,500,000 tons of pig iron in furnaces of such size that one alone turns out in one month the whole output of the whole country in 1840. And we consume in these furnaces, of coal converted into coke and of coal under the boilers of our blowing engines and in our rolling-mills, about 20,000,000 tons, or 10 per cent. of the total; for the making of pig iron is only the first of the metallurgical processes that combine to yield us the iron and the steel which every year we are turning to new uses and manufacturing into new shapes.

Nor are iron and steel the only metals which our unlimited command of coal and coke as well as ore has enabled us to produce in quantity already in excess of any of our competitors in the industrial world. We make about two-thirds of the world's crude copper, and one-quarter of the world's production of lead; and when we fully appreciate the manufacturing advantages which our good fuel-supply confers on us, we shall manufacture into specialized compounds and forms all these and other metals, instead of exporting them as crude material to be manufactured abroad. What amount of coal is consumed in our great woollen and cotton mills and in the smaller workshops of the country, it is impossible to calculate; but without such consumption we could not have risen in so short a period into the first rank of the great manufacturing powers, nor kept the wheels of our immense internal and growing foreign commerce in motion.

As we are a country of great distances, this is especially true. If coal were not widely disseminated, and fuel for our locomotives had therefore to be hauled a thousand miles or more, our freight charges could not be, as they are to-day, the lowest in the world. And if coal were confined to a few, and these distant, regions, manufacturing could never have become, as it has, a common occupation of every section of the land, but the West would still be a grain-producer, the South a cotton-grower, and the metal and manufacturing interests would be confined to the Middle and North Atlantic States. As it is, thanks to the abundance of coal in Illinois, Chicago and other towns in that State are as conspicuous for their steel and other manufactures as Pennsylvania itself. The "New South," with its great coal resources in the Virginias, Tennessee, and Alabama, is to-day fixing for the older iron States the price of pig, and is converting into textile fabrics her cotton in her own factories. This interfusion of manufacturing and farming is effectually correcting the once ominous subdivision of the country into communities of opposing interests, and therefore of conflicting political prejudices. Even what was till recently the "far West" is entering the community of manufacturing States, owing to the possession of coal. Colorado has its iron furnaces and its steel-rail mill, and, by virtue of its cheap fuel, is certain to become ere long a manufacturing, and to cease being solely a mining and a ranching, State. When that stage is reached, its people will view and vote on the intricate economical questions which are to-day, and will continue to be, the burning topics of political discussion among us, more dispassionately and with juster regard to the conflicting interests of others than they do at present. Not only, therefore, do coal and prosperity go hand in hand, but coal and politics are close allies.

A consideration of moment is the probable duration of our coal-supply, but it is far less vital to ourselves than the same consideration is to England, for instance. Her coal is mined to a depth of 3,400 feet, and another century, at the rate of present production, will exhaust her coal to a depth that would to-day make its mining unprofitable. But it does not follow that during this next century improvements in methods and machinery will not compensate for and even more than counterbalance the greater cost of deeper mining. Our stores of the most accessible and of the most cheaply mined bituminous coal are being rapidly drained, and therefore the extremely low cost of sixty and seventy cents per ton at which Clearfield and some other Eastern coals are sold on the cars cannot be for ever maintained. But the date is incalculably distant when any one of our great basins of soft coal will be exhausted. The same, however, is not true of the deposits of anthracite. The three main basins, the Schuylkill, Lehigh, and Wyoming, cover an area of only 480 square miles, or less than one-hundredth of the area of our bituminous coal resources. And of these three basins, the Lehigh, which yields the best coal, is so much the smallest that its comparatively short life can be approximately measured. But two conservative causes are coming into play to arrest the rapid exhaustion of our valuable anthracite—more careful and economical mining, by which the excessive waste in extraction, amounting in the past to as high as 60 per cent. of the actual cubic contents of the coal, will be minimized, and, simultaneously, a great reduction in the consumption of coal required to create heat and generate power. The day is not far distant when, instead of thousands of wasteful stoves and open fireplaces in each of our cities, burning an extravagant amount of fuel for the heat actually generated, coal will be gasified, its by-product saved, and the gas conveyed, like illuminating gas, to every household, with an immense addition to human comfort and as immense a saving of fuel and labor. But a still greater economy will result in an improvement in engines and metallurgical methods. Our best boilers and steam-engines to-day generate only one-tenth as much power as the energy actually stored in the coal consumed represents; and the fuel we employ to reduce our ores and to refine and manufacture the metals is almost as wastefully burned in our furnaces. Already gas-engines are manufactured which do the work of the steam-engine of the ordinary type with one-quarter the fuel, and we are promised electricity direct from coal, which electricity can be converted into power with a still nearer approach to theoretical economy. There is no reason to suppose that our demand for power will abate. On the contrary, our love of ease and the scarcity of certain classes of labor will stimulate inventors to devise ever more complete appliances to replace physical exertion by machinery. Thus, though the demands for more power will continue to be imperative, the principal agent in generating it will be consumed so much more economically that its exhaustion will not proceed in proportion to the increased uses to which it will be turned.

MORE FICTION.

The Real Issue. By William Allen White. Chicago: Way & Williams. 1896.

Old Dorset: Chronicles of a New York Country Side. By Robert Cameron Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

Ring o' Rushes. By Shan F. Bullock. Stone & Kimball. 1896.

Arrested. By Esmè Stuart. Appletons. 1897.

On the Face of the Waters. By Florence Steel. Macmillan. 1897.

Lord Palmerston's contemptuous sniff at the man who "has been there" was never in more need of repetition than to-day, when syndicate writers rush to every cross-roads for local color, expecting to get it in twenty-four hours. Having been there, may they not speak? Accordingly they do speak, and from their shrill, confusing chorus we turn with relief to the words of the man who was born there. Mr. White has this right to speak for Kansas, and his fifteen short stories, dealing mainly with life there, have the accent of truth. In the "Story of Aqua Pura" and the "Story of the Highlands" this truthfulness becomes almost categorical, and one is compelled to the reflection that more art and fewer facts had carried greater conviction. For newspaper reports of actual disaster we have neither tears nor memory, though we lavish both on the unrealities of fiction. And if we remember the years of cruel drought in Kansas, it will not be for the careful accuracy which provided us with dates, but because of the four-year-old child who sat on the warped steps and asked, "What is rain, Mr. Barringer?"

The story chosen for the title-piece is rather a bare bit of realism, but the book discloses better things. In the "Reading of the Riddle" Mr. White displays much sympathetic insight, while the main incident—the midnight drive of a young man and maiden over the prairies—is in itself no bad commentary on a civilization where such things are so frequently and innocently done. In "The King of Boyville," freshness of observation and vigor of expression have produced an effective little picture which will appeal wherever schoolboy sentiment is shown by somersaults. Mr. White's touch is at times not unpoetical: "Heat-lightning winked devilishly in the distance, and the dissolving clouds . . . laughed in derisive thunder at the hopes of the worn old man"; this too nearly paraphrases Shelley's line not to be good. Less happy is the description of a night scene: "The large, sombre quiet, dotted by the tinkle of country cowbells." A praiseworthy desire for fresh combinations has led Mr. White to

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'quaint some of his words with strange bedfellows. We read of a "shrivelled tear," of a scene "weirdly dry"—a phrase which may be called reversible, since, like a good rule, it works both ways—and we are told of a silence which "gnaws the glamour from the heart." The success of such forced alliances may be doubted, but Mr. White is seldom overlanguaged, and his direct style often attains to vividness.

If the arbiters of literary modes were as frank as those who dictate in the realm of dress, their latest utterance would be on this wise: Villages are much in vogue; the dialect decorations may be chosen to suit the taste of the writer. Old Dorset is not in the least like Thrums or Drumtochty, for it is in southern New York and the dialect is slightly modified New English. Moreover, in Scottish village annals we do not find the figure—traditional with us since Rip Van Winkle—of the village druukard, who is always a good sportsman and beloved of children. He flourished in Old Dorset under the name of Ezra Spicer, and his "Expiation" makes the best of the Chronicles. The spirit of Old Dorset is said to be embodied in a certain chivalrous old Major with whose romance the Chronicles are chiefly concerned. The leisurely style of the book conveys harmoniously the author's conception of the placid village life of forty years ago.

The green, shamrock-sprinkled cover prepares one for the presence, in 'The Ring o' Rushes,' of that dialect which was formerly called brogue. The author is evidently more at home with this than in the use of English undefiled, for even when speaking in his own proper person he finds it difficult to rid himself of the poetic inversions, the lapses and licenses that characterize the Irish peasant speech. Strong as he is on his own ground, he has put into the mouth of one of his personages a speech like unto none that is uttered under heaven. His Magnificence returns to his native Gorteen from a sojourn in "Chicago City," where he has acquired wealth and, rather more inconsequently, a "Yankee drawl." A specimen will serve to show a London Irishman's conception of this:

> "I reckon in Chicago City I've a fine house and plenty in it. My furniture and fixings I calc'late would work out to a pretty high figure. My pictures and statoos cost me I guess some hundreds of dollars. Two domestics I keep, yaas. . . . I've just come from a little holiday trip, you knaow. . . . My baggage I guess is coming from the station just naow."

The untravelled inhabitants of Gorteen and the vicinity bounded by the Ring o' Rushes are interesting and picturesque enough to make their acquaintance worth while. Among them poor Jane Fallon, whose bridegroom, bargaining for her dowry, broke her heart with his "Make it guineas and I'll take the heifer," stands out, a tragic little figure. The stories are preceded by a prologue, which should, however, be read last if the reader is to share the enthusiasm with which the author here marshals his various characters.

'Arrested' is a story of love, jealousy, pride, poverty, gold, treachery, murder, mystery, and other exciting passions and possessions. There is good English in the dialogue, and some humor in the shape of a notable landlady and her cowed husband, suggestive of a similar couple in 'Sketches by Boz.' If so many novels must be written every year, and among them so many of the old-fashioned kind, where, after many vicissitudes, "Truth prevails and virtue is triumphant," this one has better excuses for existing than many of its contemporaries.

Historical novelists of to-day, like historical novelists of the past, love to choose for the scenes they depict a period abounding in dramatic events and startling incidents which is already generally, if vaguely, known to the majority of their readers. In French history the times of the Fronde and of the French Revolution supply exactly what is needed; in English history, the period of the Great Civil War; and in American history, the era of the War of Independence. Quite modern history affords few more appropriate settings for an historical novel than the trials and struggles of the handful of Englishmen and Englishwomen upon whom fell the brunt of meeting the outburst of the mutiny of the Sepoy army in 1857. Men who lived through that troublous time generally decline to speak much of it, and with rare art Mr. Rudyard Kipling, in one of the finest of his short stories, "On the City Wall," represents a young English subaltern refusing to speak of the Mutiny with the dignified native prisoner whom he has in charge. Mr. Kipling, indeed, had carefully abstained from making more than one or two chance allusions to the events of 1857 throughout the numerous volumes of his tales of Indian life. Others have not imitated his reticence. Mrs. Steel, the author of some graceful studies of Indian native life and of some agreeable novels of Anglo-Indian society, has essayed a higher flight in her latest work, 'On the Face of the Waters,' and has deliberately selected as the theme of an elaborate novel the Indian Mutiny with its culmination in the siege of Delhi. It is impossible to avoid comparing Mrs. Steel's book with other Mutiny novels. Perhaps the best of these is the late Sir George Chesney's 'The Dilemma,' which contains a vivid and accurate account of the famous defence of the judge's house at Arrah by a handful of Englishmen against more than ten thousand natives supplied with artillery; and among others may be noted Colonel Meadows-Taylor's 'Seeta,' and Mr. Forrest's 'Eight Days.'

Mrs. Steel's book is inferior to Col. Chesney's in that she cannot reproduce, as he did, from actual experience, the atmosphere of the days of the Mutiny, but as a mere story her plot is better conceived and her characters more natural and true to life. She has carefully studied the records of the Mutiny and thus acquired a knowledge of its facts, but her very labor gives an air of artificiality to her account of events which contrasts with the simple eloquence of actual observers in contemporary letters and journals and in official reports. This is not the place to criticise her history, though it may be pointed out that she is a little hard upon the gallant leader of the Third Bengal Cavalry, Col. Carmichael-Smyth, and that her account of Mrs. Leeson (or Mrs. Collins as she is called by some authorities), the white—or, rather, half-caste—woman who escaped from Delhi during the siege, is not perfectly accurate. Still more doubtful is her explanation of the causes of the famous outbreak, although in this matter she has been mainly guided by Mr. Forrest's volume of official records. The one historical character whom she brings prominently upon the scene is the heroic John Nicholson, who is indeed a figure more fit for the pages of romance than those of sober history. As a story, 'On the Face of the Waters' shows great constructive skill and brilliant characterization, and places the author quite in the forefront of contemporary Anglo-Indian novelists.

A LIGHT OF UNIVERSALISM.

Life of Alonzo Ames Miner, S.T.D., LL.D. By George H. Emerson, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 1896.

If the contents of this volume were equal to its admirable appearance, it would be a better monument to Dr. Miner than he could have in brass or marble. But the biography published so sumptuously and attractively has some serious defects. The least of these are the dubious constructions, here and there suggesting hasty composition or revision, and the lapse of a style habitually florid into metaphors which are sometimes badly mixed. More serious are such vulgarisms as the changes rung on Dr. Miner's name, the full-mouthed "Alonzo Ames Miner" being reserved for passages of elaborate commendation, and for those scenic effects for which Dr. Emerson's predilection is unmistakable. It is this which has proved more injurious to his book than anything else, except possibly the diffuseness natural to one whose daily business is the editing of a denominational paper. But the book might have been more diffuse than it is, and, if Dr. Emerson's eye for the essential had been as sharp as it is for the spectacular, he would have given us a much clearer impression of Dr. Miner's character and the sources of his varied power. Even then we should have had a eulogy, for evidently the idea that a good biographer is something better than a eulogist has never entered Dr. Emerson's head.

Among Universalists Dr. Miner was a leader of the greatest prominence. In the history of their denomination he will always have a place with Murray and Ballou and Whittemore and Chapin; and it will not be the lowest on the list. His time and his abilities assigned to him a different work from theirs. He was much more intellectual than Murray, and he worked his Universalism very differently; Murray's being merely the crudest possible variety of Calvinistic Methodism. As compared with Ballou, Dr. Miner was much less innovating and original; as compared with Whittemore, much more dignified and refined, if much less popular. Drs. Miner and Chapin were born in the same year, and they were for a time rivals in the esteem of Massachusetts Universalists; Dr. Chapin being much the more attractive preacher. When Dr. Chapin came to New York, he made easier Dr. Miner's advancement to the highest place in Boston, but there was room for both of them in the same field, their methods were so unlike. Dr. Chapin was indifferent to denominational organization and doctrinal preaching. He was no controversialist; Dr. Miner nothing if not one, and an inventor and manager of denominational machinery. It is not among Universalists, but among Unitarians, that Dr. Miner finds the leader with purposes and enthusiasms most like his own, Dr. H. W. Bellows, whose life, strangely enough, has never yet been written. The resemblances and differences of these two men would afford a very interesting subject for comparison. For denominational organization and education they had an equal passion. But Dr. Bellows's extra-denominational activity was much healthier than Dr. Miner's, and personally he was much more a man of the world. While strictly temperate, he had little inclination towards Dr. Miner's prohibition politics, or his dictum that the use of wines and liquors is inseparable from their abuse.

Dr. Miner was born in Lempster, N. H., August 17, 1814, and died in Boston June 14,

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1895. "Certain particulars" are given "connecting him with the royal family of England," but not by blood: Edward III. gave the name Miner and a coat of arms to a miner who fitted out for him a company of one hundred fighting men. Much that is interesting is related concerning Dr. Miner's ancestry and parentage. The son's strenuous Universalism was an inheritance from the father. A long illness, consequent on a fall from an unruly colt, selected him for the work of the ministry. His only preparation for it was that afforded by such minor academies as those of Franklin and Lebanon, and by his preaching whenever he had opportunity. Ordained in 1839, his first pastorate was in Methuen, Mass., and lasted for three years, when he went to Lowell. Dr. Emerson writes elaborately on the factional Universalism of the time, but fails to indicate which side the young preacher took in the denominational division. An instructive passage is that pertaining to the endeavor of the orthodox Congregationalists to make the Washingtonian temperance reformers subject to their will. Dr. Miner won his spurs in a tilt disputing the rights of this matter. What he said is not set down — hardly could we expect it to be; but it is Dr. Emerson's habit to omit what is most important — the words producing certain memorable effects.

Next to Dr. Miner's interest in temperance, we are told, was his interest in anti-slavery, and we are promised that "in a chapter by itself justice will be done to Dr. Miner's anti-slavery record." But when the chapter comes, it has little more to tell than that Dr. Miner delivered the Boston Fourth of July oration in 1855 and took strong ground against the enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law. History is somewhat dislocated when the passage of this law is made subsequent to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, which in fact was later by four years. In Lowell Dr. Miner did much to make himself *persona grata* with the orthodox churches by stoutly defending them against the abolitionists. In this instance his words are given, and it is amusing that Dr. Emerson should think the abolitionists "logically silenced, their only gun spiked." His argument was, if the fornicating Corinthian Church was a church of Christ, why not the slaveholding American? But the abolitionists would have denied without a moment's hesitation that the fornicating Corinthians were Christians.

There is nothing in Dr. Emerson's book more pathetic than the fortunes of Father Ballou's church in Boston. In 1845 the society was so weak that there was a proposition to wind up its affairs and sell the church building over the aged pastor's head. Dr. Chapin came and brought with him a temporary prosperity; he went off to New York, and the situation became more critical than ever. Dr. Miner was summoned to the rescue, and he came, and his pastorate extended from 1848 till 1892. It was successful to a remarkable degree and in many different ways. It filled the last years of Father Ballou's life with happiness. It made the church a centre of denominational activity. The society, instigated by Dr. Miner, raised more than half a million dollars for Tufts College, of which he became President in 1862, holding the office and his parochial charge together until 1874, for some years without an assistant pastor, for some without a salary, from the college. His own gifts to the college were most generous, amounting to nearly $50,000. His interest in denominational education was not by any means exhausted by his relations with Tufts. There he was not only President but preacher, and teacher of ethics and political economy. The best glimpses of his teaching are in the appendix, where they are furnished by the Rev. J. C. Adams.

It is astonishing that in an octavo of 550 pages Dr. Emerson furnishes so little evidence of Dr. Miner's intellectual force. There is scanty indication that he had any of the kind which expresses itself in pure thought. What he had was logical acumen, skill in argument, great executive ability, and a commanding personality. In one of his rhetorical flights, Dr. Emerson thinks he might have been a Cromwell in Cromwell's time, a Luther in his century. But he would have been a Cromwell with a difference: he would have hung John Biddle and George Fox, both of whom Cromwell treated kindly. Luther he was most unlike, and he was much like Calvin. No Calvinist of his generation had more the Puritan temper than he. We fail to find in him, as depicted here, any poetry or humor. Little is said of his relation to the great scientific and critical problems of his times, but enough to show that with the new ideas he had no sympathy and for their promulgators no admiration. His theology moved in the old textual circle from which the new Universalism now in all the churches has drawn nothing of its strength.

His Puritan temper found expression in his persistent anti-Romanism and intemperate temperance propaganda. In his anti-Romanism he was a forerunner of the A. P. A., and should have been its acknowledged head. Dr. Emerson's chapters on temperance reform and prohibitory legislation are most unsatisfactory. Apparently he has not learned that evolution may be degeneration. Papal infallibility should have taught him this *ad hominem*. But he exhibits the evolution of both total abstinence and prohibitory legislation as if their evolution were their justification. When we consider that Dr. Miner was better known in Massachusetts as the protagonist of State prohibition than as a Universalist preacher or educator, it is pitiful to find Dr. Emerson's account of him in this aspect of his life narrowed down to a few pages, and these for the most part taken up with a rhetorical picture of the scene in 1867 when he and John A. Andrew argued the case of prohibition before a committee of the Massachusetts House of Representatives. Here, again, while we are told that "he rose to the height of the great occasion with Websterian grandeur," no particulars are vouchsafed, nor do we get the substance of his argument. We are assured that Andrew was completely floored, but some who remember the affair will not so judge it, and they will recall Dr. Miner's extremely characteristic attempt to prove that the wine which Jesus made at Cana was unfermented, and his insistence that if the contrary were true, the last excuse for temperance would be destroyed. The Temperance Alliance expressed its full satisfaction "by the presentation of a costly copy of the Doré Bible."

It is evident that Dr. Miner had great ability as a denominational and educational organizer, and that the Universalist body owes him much for what he did in this two-fold capacity, and also as the pastor of a large and generous congregation. It is further evident that among the thinkers of his time he has no place, that he wrote nothing which has permanent value, and that his influence upon the thought of the Universalist body was distinctly unfavorable to its rational development. That he had personal qualities more engaging than were suspected by those who knew him only in the stress of his forensics on the public stage, is a persuasion that cannot be escaped by any careful reader of Dr. Emerson's valuable and yet disappointing book.

In and Beyond the Himálayas: A Record of Sport and Travel in the Abode of Snow. By S J. Stone. Illustrated by Charles Whymper. New York: Edward Arnold. 1896.

Mr. Stone has by good shooting killed so many large animals that we should forgive him if he began his narrative of sport with the words "arma virumque cano." He has made seven long expeditions to Kashmir and Tibet, in the course of which all the most highly prized varieties of game known to the hill country have been swept within his bag. Whoever is curious about the manner of stalking and "bowling over" and even "haláling" the "blue ribbons" of the Himalayas, will find what he wants to know here, unless his imagination soars beyond márkhor, ibex, bear, nyan, wild yak, and stag. Mr. Stone writes with directness and modesty of lands which are but partially explored, and is consumed by a love of adventure which will go straight to the heart of every hunter.

Mr. Stone does not detain his reader by the oft-rehearsed account of the way from Baramúla to Srinagar, but hurries him at once to the scene of action. He breaks up his experiences into three parts, making Astór and Ladakh, respectively, the centre of the first two, and in the third reaching Tibet by means of the Baspa Valley and the Gúgérang Pass. The last section contains the most interesting chapter of the book, Mr. Stone's intercourse with the Panbóh of Zárang. The Tibetan border is supposed to be hermetically sealed to travellers from India, and this particular Panbóh was very nasty until "her Majesty's silver countenance" had been exposed to view. The description of his gradual thawing out, eventual friendliness, and the Anglo-Tibetan feast which followed is delightful in itself, besides breaking the monotony of game-slaying. The climax of the entertainment was reached when Mr. Stone produced his flask and proceeded to distribute its contents among the uncouth native guests:

"After tea and biscuit, the Panbóh showed his satisfaction by holding up his thumb and saying I was a jolly good fellow. This is the Tibetan mode of returning thanks. Each one held up his thumb in the same way, with the fist closed, and repeated the same words. Now the whiskey came round. It had to be explained first to the Panbóh that it was the same as his chhang, made from barley. He took a few drops in the palm of his hand and tasted it. Approval stole over his face; and a few drops went round in the usual way in the palm of each man's hand. Smacking of lips, wry faces, and grunts of satisfaction resulted. It was evidently too strong neat, and water was called for. Then a little whiskey and water round in the cups again, with universal approval. This, I will make bold to say, was the first time that 'Napier Johnstone' was drunk by highlanders of this ilk; but the smacks, eye-twinklings, and coughs bore strong resemblance to the symptoms noticeable under similar circumstances in the far-off land of the grateful liquor's birth. As a special honor, I mixed a glassful in my own silver travelling-cup, and handed it to the Panbóh for his particular delectation; but the same thing happened—he took a sip and passed my silver cup round to each man as before! It was drained when it came back to the Panbóh, who politely handed it over his shoulder to my servant, and told him to have it cleaned. The spirits warmed their hearts, and I had again the emphatic verdict of their thumbs."

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While Mr. Stone managed on the expedition just mentioned to explore a corner of Tibet which had never before been touched by a European, his success in shooting was indifferent. His best big-game record (and this is a big-game rather than a geographical volume) was made in the Keipsang valley above Leh, where he killed three bull yaks in six days. The head of the largest weighed 100 pounds and had massive horns 34 inches in length. Yak-shooting ordinarily involves day after day of stalking at the trying height of 17,000–20,000 feet. "The hunting and stalking are the most exciting in the world; the climbing, the ground and its surroundings the most trying. The chase of the wild dong, therefore, must be classed among the severest tests of a sportsman's quality." We doubt very much, though, whether the perils of yak-shooting equal those incident to the pursuit of the musk-ox in the Barren Lands. If respiration is more difficult, the food-supply is less precarious.

The district of Åstór is celebrated for its position on the route to Gilgit, and for its claim to the superb peak of Nanga Parbat, which is among the noblest even of Himalayan mountains. Its valleys abound, or did before Astór became so accessible, in márkhor (*capra megaceros*) and ibex (*capra sibirica*). These animals range in the same regions, but at different altitudes. Their proximity is convenient, for when the sportsman fails to start márkhor on the lower levels, he can mount higher for ibex. The márkhor furnishes Mr. Stone with his chief subject, and stands forth with great dignity in the frontispiece. The nyan (*ovis ammon*) is a close second in its claim on general interest; less sought, perhaps, than the *ovis poli* of the Pamirs, yet so shy that Gen. Kinloch gives it the palm for wariness. "After a lengthened experience, I can unhesitatingly affirm that there is no animal so difficult to stalk as a male nyan." Mr. Stone seems to have found it less elusive than most hunters, killing four in one small district.

The writer's tender-heartedness and frequent compunctions are somewhat out of place in the autobiography of a Nimrod. If a man goes shooting, why should he lament over the fate of his victims? It would be far more logical to let the beasts of the field live. Over a brown bear Mr. Stone moralizes as follows: "An old male mortally wounded and fast dying at your feet, uttering his protest in his own bearish language, seems to say, 'Why have you murdered a harmless creature like me? I keep far away from the human species, and have done them no harm—even the roots and berries that are my food cannot ever be of any use to you and yours.'" And a little later, apropos of the yak he spared: "I have a horror of big bags—an unconquerable disgust at my own butcherliness comes over me when I stand over a noble animal that has been slain by my own hand; this feeling increases with every fresh trophy added to my collection, till it forces me to drop the pursuit of that particular game and follow something else." Truly, the quality of mercy is not strained!

Mr. Stone shows by numerous illustrations the strength of shikári insistence upon the halál or throat-cutting of a wounded animal. In strictness the act should be performed before the victim breathes its last, but, to effect an economy of meat, a subterfuge has been devised by some of the less devout. If the hunter follows up his game without rest, he may halál it when found, even though it be stark dead. If once he sits down, the meat is unlawful and is allowed to rot. A Moslem exact in the performance of his religious duties, like Mr. Stone's shikári, Sharafa, considers the easier form of halál to be irregular and profane.

The devotee of big-game shooting will find it well worth his while to read the story of Mr. Stone's adventures.

The Tale of Thrond of Gate, Commonly Called Færeyinga Saga. Englished by F. York Powell, Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford, etc., etc. London: David Nutt. 1896.

THE Færeyinga Saga was given the name it usually bears by C. C. Rafn, who first published it in 1832, with the Icelandic text and a Færoese and Danish translation. The saga owes to Rafn not only its publication, but its actual identity as a separate work. It is found, namely, in that most comprehensive of Icelandic MSS., the great *Flateybook*, which contains lives of the Norse kings, not as a continuous narrative, but as separate parts imbedded at intervals in the text of which it thus forms a constituent part. Internal evidence shows that it apparently came into the hands of the compilers of the *Flateybook* as a single saga, and by them was dismembered to suit their particular purpose. The new form is, consequently, but a rehabilitation. As a saga, it has the characteristics of the other Icelandic sagas of the classic period, for it plainly arose in Iceland and not in the Færoes. From internal evidence, again, its date as a whole is the early part of the thirteenth century. The text here used follows throughout the Rafn edition. Here, as there, the translator substitutes, in chapter xxvii., a passage from the Olaf Tryggvason Saga for the more elaborate account of the *Flateybook*, in that, to quote him, "it seems (as C. Ch. Rafn thought) to suit the saga better." There are versions of the saga in Danish and German, but this is the first rendition into English.

The Færeyinga Saga, like many of its kind, although set forth as historical fact, is not always genuine history. Some of the apocryphal material in it is not always readily separable from the rest. Other parts of it, however, are but new versions of old tales elsewhere told, and a part of the ancient story-tellers' common stock in trade. Not a few memories of the persons and episodes of the saga are preserved to this day in the ballads of the Færoes, which are still sung and danced to in the islands.

Prof. Powell calls the saga the 'Tale of Thrond' from its principal hero, Thrond of Gata. Its central theme of action is the introduction of Christianity into the Færoes, in 998, in which Thrond and Sigmund Brestisson play the principal parts, the one bitterly opposing it with all his heathen wiles, and the other triumphantly furthering it, though he meets at the end with a pitiful death. The whole story is cleverly and dramatically told. Its two main characters in particular are admirably drawn. Sigmund is plainly the ideal of the saga-teller, who has given us in him a perfect type of the Christian of his own day. The author in his introduction directs attention to "his fidelity, his unselfishness, his mercy, and his marvellous prowess," which is second only to that of Olaf Tryggvason himself, the paragon of the North. Thrond, on the contrary, is made, as Vigfusson pointed out, a Louis XI. However bad he is, he has nevertheless throughout, in his stubborn opposition to the New Faith and its consequences, and in spite of his craft and cruelty, an unfailing share of the reader's sympathy. There is nowhere in the sagas a better piece of character-drawing than this of Thrond's, nor one more skilfully handled for its dramatic effect in the telling of the story.

Prof. Powell is not only the best-known pupil of Vigfusson, from whom he has both his knowledge of Icelandic and his essential points of view in matters Northern, but, since his preceptor's death, is far and away the principal Icelandic scholar in England. His translation is as a matter of course correctly and carefully done, and yet it suffers in more ways than one from faults, or rather blemishes, of rendition, which it seems as if a more critical apprehension of fitness might have obviated. The version, in the first place, is not merely translated, as the process is usually sufficiently well described, but, according to the title-page and elsewhere, is "Englished," a word which need leave no doubt as to the identity of the new medium. This is, however, in spite of the warning, an English that is frequently in need of a footnote. The issue of these important sagas in the sumptuous manner that has of late been in vogue is not an unimportant matter, and it does seem as if this phase of it might be better met.

The problem is not an insoluble one. The given factors are a Germanic language of the thirteenth century, in which there are many words and idioms identical with ours, to render as closely as may be into English—and not what may or might be English—neither too archaic to be unintelligible, either in whole or in part, nor too modern to take away the essential savor of the past which should cling to it like a garment. What Magnusson and Morris, and now Prof. Powell, really do, however, is to solve the problem only partly. Their works are caviare to the general, one and all; and the general public, more's the pity, neither heeds them nor reads them. From early English history we understand such words as *fyrd* and *grith*. *Withershins*, as in the phrase, "He went round the houses *withershins*," is, however, to many an incomprehensible word, and when we meet with *slot*, in "as if he were tracking their slot like a hound," we must look it up or lose it. What Sigmund and the rest really came to when, as the text says, "they came where a *ride* lay before them," only a recourse to the original Icelandic reveals. These are random instances, but they sufficiently illustrate the point. When Sigmund is made to say, "I would fain go a-warring," we think it rather puerile, but it is at least intelligible. Some of the diction is lucid, picturesque, and consistent, all three together; and there's the rub, for the whole of it might be so.

Then there is the matter of the rendition of proper names, whether of persons or places, with which fault may justly be found. Why, for instance, should Olaf Tryggvason, who is perfectly recognizable under his real name, be given an alias like "Olave Tryggwesson," as he appears here, or Nidaros be juggled into "Nithoyce"? Some of the names are translated and some are not, but there is no discoverable principle. Snæulf does not appear as "Snow-wolf," but the euphonious Gata is turned into "Gate"; Raumsdal appears as "Reamsdale," Hrafn Holmgardsfari turns up as "Raven Holmgarthfarer," and Thorbjörn Götuskegg as "Thorbeorn Gatebeard," as if these were an improvement upon the original forms. In the case of the well-known names like the Harolds—Fairhair, Bluetooth, or Grayfell—where custom has sanctioned the usage,

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or even the viking (Prof. Powell calls him a "Wicking") Harold Ironpate, who part of the time is Harold Ironhead, there can be no reasonable objection to the translation of the descriptive part of the name. The matter is, however, a delicate one, and nothing is gained by making out of good Norse appellations fantastic English ones. This part of the work is full of idiosyncrasies, and they are, furthermore, the idiosyncrasies that abound in Vigfusson's pages. It may be that Prof. Powell was the offending person all the time, since he has been associated with Vigfusson in notable works like the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale,' where this very feature has ineffably marred the text.

All these points aside, Prof. Powell has given us access in his *Færeyinga Saga* to one of the most intrinsically interesting of all the sagas as literature, and one not without value for its many side-lights on the history of culture. It is a somewhat new direction for a Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford to take, but it is one that may be readily followed still further with interest and profit.

Pickle the Spy; or, The Incognito of Prince Charles. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

THIS very handsome volume, in which Mr. Lang exhibits his usual literary craft and more than his usual research, is a remarkable monument of a still more remarkable cult. The career of Charles Edward Stewart, "Prince Charlie," the Young Chevalier or the Young Pretender, is certainly full of adventure and vicissitude bordering on the marvellous; but surely the greatest marvel about it is the nature of the interest which it continues to excite to this day in Scotland. It is really difficult for any one who looks at Charles's history coolly and compares it with that of other adventurers—his own ancestors, James I. of Scotland, or Edward IV. of England, or even his great-uncle Charles II.—to comprehend the touching loyalty to his person, the pitying regret at his proved defects, which still attend his name. When Fergus McIvor brings Waverley into his presence, it can hardly be supposed that Scott has omitted any historic trait which might justify his hero in leaving the presence chamber with the enthusiastic burst, "A prince to live and die under." Yet if one reads over exactly what the Chevalier is made to say which wins Waverley to his cause, it is surprising how little there is in it all—less, even, than sufficed, about the same time, to bring Scott himself, who had hated the Prince of Wales as a Whig, to his knees in adoration of the Tory Regent; and, indeed, Scott makes his own Colonel Talbot comment on the emptiness of it all. Nevertheless, out of just such gracious phrases, and a refusal to authorize the assassination of the Duke of Cumberland, Mr. Lang endeavors to reinstate the old champion of the White Rose; and, when forced to admit, with the utmost unwillingness, the ingratitude, the meanness, the debauchery of Charles's later years, works up a theory of a gradual change of character produced by misfortunes. A little trouble, however, in recalling the Stewart history would show in almost every one of the line who survived middle age an equally disappointing development. James I. of Scotland, James I. of England, his son Charles, his two grandsons, all showed in later life traits wholly unsuspected by those who knew them as princes.

In the life of the young Pretender, as ordinarily written, there is a gap from his failure in 1746 to his father's death in 1766. He was known to be wandering about the Continent and visited England at least once if not oftener; but the diplomatic agents at the various courts were much mystified as to his whereabouts. Mr. Lang, from careful research in the Stewart papers at Windsor, and other sources, has succeeded in identifying most of his retreats, and especially in fixing him for several years in an apartment adjoining a convent in Paris, whence he was constantly intriguing with male and female conspirators while supposed to be in Berlin or Poland. The story is sufficiently perplexed and romantic; but it is marvellous to note the glamour that makes Mr. Lang dwell on every detail with a devout care which no other adventurer's career ever would elicit.

In the state papers are frequent proofs that Charles Edward was tracked constantly by a spy in the pay of England, who writes to the Pelham Government under various signatures, but especially as "Pickle," one of several proofs of the popularity of Smollett. The reports of this precious character have been for some time before the public, and a recent work has identified him with James Mohr Macgregor, mentioned in 'Rob Roy' as the youngest son of that redoubted chieftain, and portrayed at length by Stevenson as the father of "Catriona." James was a cheap traitor enough, and his identification as "Pickle" was not resented at the time by any child of Clan Alpine. But Mr. Lang's researches acquit him of this disgrace, and transfer it almost beyond question to another Highlander, Alastair Ruadh Macdonell, the "Young Glengarry," and himself the holder of that illustrious name in later years. And here it is that the cold Saxon is fairly puzzled at the deep agony which evidently rends our author's heart to think that a Highland chief—a Glengarry, a claimant for the headship of Clan Conuil and the Lordship of the Isles—could have taken the pay of the Duke of Newcastle to spy on Tearlach Righ Albainn. It is to him as it would be to a South Carolinian if Jack the Painter were identified with a Middleton or a Pinckney. And yet, are Highland chiefs of such elevation of character that they may not be even as Churchill or as Arnold? For a hundred and fifty years the world has borne very complacently the fact that Simon Lord Lovat, "Macshimei," the head of Clan Fraser, was true to no king and to no religion. Must every man, Celt or Teuton, who loves to read 'Waverley,' break down under the burden of discovering that the grand-uncle of Fergus McIvor's prototype was a spy upon an adventurer whom calm history must pronounce not much loftier than himself?

The book, as said above, is very elegant in dress and full of faithful research and spirited writing. But an American cannot help feeling that the expenditure of so much money and intellect on such heroes is better suited to those who consecrate memorial portraits to King Charles the Martyr than to a man of the genius and character of Mr. Andrew Lang.

Europe in the Middle Age. By Oliver J. Thatcher, Ph.D., and Ferdinand Schwill, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

DRS. THATCHER and Schwill, teachers of history in the University of Chicago, have added another to the list of books on the Middle Ages intended for the use of college students. The authors attempt in their preface to justify their choice of a definition for the much-abused term "Middle Ages"—or "Middle Age." "This term," they say, "is necessarily vague," and "therefore" there was no reason why they should not employ it in its traditional sense as including roughly the period from 500 to 1500. This, we believe, is the fundamental error of a very well-meant work. To treat the history of Europe during any thousand years, but more especially in this particular thousand, in 650 pages, is not the kind of service now demanded by the conditions of our historical education in America. The excuse that this is the sort of book found to be needed for the practical work of the authors in their teaching at the University of Chicago, is not so much a justification of the book as a condemnation of their teaching methods. It appears to us that, if the "Middle Age" is a vague term, the first duty of the teacher and writer is to give it some precision by limiting it to a period which shall have a distinct character of its own, and then to bring out this character by every possible illustration. The period from 500 to 1500 is not merely too long for comprehensive treatment, but is too widely varied in its character. It includes two great epochs of social and political transformation, and, by fixing the attention on these more dramatic movements, the writer is almost certain to confuse the very impression he ought most carefully to preserve, that of mediævalness. At all events, be the theory of this book right or wrong, the execution leaves very much to be desired, and we are prepared to excuse many of its shortcomings on the ground of an impossible theory to start with.

In a volume of this compass, the division of space is a matter of the first importance; but here we have fifteen pages on the Feudal System and eighteen on Monasticism, while a full hundred, nearly one-sixth of the whole book, are devoted to Mohammed, Mohammedanism, and the Crusades. The necessity of saying something about everything, from German heathenism to the sculptures of Michelangelo, explains, perhaps, a sententiousness of style which has at times almost the effect of a catalogue of ships. Short sentences are, indeed, a good thing, but here they become wearisome and quite destructive of the sense of continuity or development. The same effect of scrappiness is produced by the division into paragraphs. These, too, follow each other, often without any evident reason, so that we can hardly fancy a student reading a chapter with much interest or getting any very distinct impression from it. The choice of language is at times such as makes one question the authors' familiarity with good spoken English.

There are several well-selected chronological tables, a good index, a list of emperors and popes, and some fairly good maps. We miss, however, all but the briefest references to literature. The authors explain this omission by "taking for granted that the teachers who may use the book are acquainted with the best literature on the period." Now, while it is true that the making of bibliographies is the most laborious and most thankless part of an author's work, since a bibliography is no sooner made than it is antiquated, it is also true that no work is more helpful to the teachers, for whom, quite as much as for the students, a text-book must be written. The assumption of our authors—would that it were not so—is not justified by the existing condition of our historical instruction in this country. In short, we have here, under a rather modern form, only another of the old-fashioned gene-

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ral text-books of history. Our need is for careful and luminous treatments of shorter and strongly marked periods.

A History of Banking in all the Leading Nations. Vols. III. and IV. New York: *The Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.* 1896.

THE third volume of this great work is devoted to the history of banking in the Latin nations, and to that of banking in Canada. The fourth and concluding volume contains accounts of banking in Germany and Austria-Hungary, in the Netherlands, in the Scandinavian countries, and in Japan and China. We shall glance hastily over these elaborate treatises, not attempting to characterize them, but merely to indicate the methods that have been pursued by the authors.

M. Pierre Des Essars of the Bank of France has contributed the history of banking in the Latin nations, beginning naturally, if not chronologically, with French banking. We can with difficulty restrain ourselves from speaking with the most enthusiastic admiration of the manner in which he has discharged this part of his task. Necessarily, he has had to summarize the history of French finance; but, while he has sufficiently explained this complicated subject, he has presented a clear view of the constitution and operation of the Bank of France, and of the other great financial establishments of that country. We need hardly say that the Bank of France has from the beginning met with trouble from the interference of the Government, but, in spite of the fact that its governors are appointed by the state, it has managed to conduct its own affairs with such wisdom as to have always retained public confidence even when forced into insolvency. Its most terrible experience was in 1870-71, when Gambetta's Government was restrained from completely gutting the bank only by the warning that if it was ruined no other resource would remain. In spite of the most determined resistance, the Bank had to grant these men 475,000,000 francs. By means of vigor, diplomacy, and good luck it was able to purchase exemption from plunder under the Commune at the price of only 17,000,000 francs.

We need not say that the socialistic element, now rising into such prominence in France, looks with evil eye on this great institution, whose charter is even now expiring. But as the profit on its note circulation, which is of course the grievance of the Socialists, amounts to only about half a million dollars, while its connection with the Government is the cause of numberless vexations, M. Des Essars contemplates the future with composure. "Even in the event that a state bank should take its place," he remarks, "it will remain none the less the oldest credit establishment in France, and will continue, with its deposits and its checks, the work that it has known so well how to perform with its currency during nearly a century, to the great advantage of the country."

No nation learns from the experience of another; yet it is impossible not to wish that some of our well-meaning Populists might read what M. Des Essars has to say of attempts to benefit the farming class by creating institutions for their use. The Crédit Foncier, which was founded for the purpose of curing the "mortgage-leprosy"—a figure of speech deserving the attention of our agitators—has had the effect of drawing capital from the rural districts, and employing it in the improvement of cities. Hence the country population has flocked to the towns, and "the Crédit Foncier has thus contributed, more than any other responsible agency, to the growth of the city proletariat, which affords the most favorable soil for the seeds of Socialism." As the Crédit Foncier did not help the peasants, the Crédit Agricole was instituted, which, as the peasants did not utilize its funds, employed them in speculating in Egyptian securities, and eventually had to go into liquidation. The fact is that the law, having mercifully undertaken to shield the farmer against the exactions of his creditors, has made it impossible for him to borrow upon easy terms. Those who take the risk of lending their money to him make him pay for the risk, and the rural population complains bitterly of the usury which measures intended for their protection have occasioned.

We cannot speak highly of M. Des Essars's treatment of banking in Italy. The subject is one of great antiquarian interest, owing to the early development of financial institutions in the Italian republics. But its present interest is wholly pathological; the system of banking is thoroughly rotten, and, if it does not presently collapse from its own weakness, it will certainly be overthrown by the first war. No hopeful symptoms are to be seen, and the least scrutiny of optimistic claims shows that they have no substantial foundation. As to Spain, Portugal, and Greece, we can spare no time to examine their systems, and merely quote M. Des Essars's remark, that the profits made by the great banks of these countries prove the bad condition of their finances. "A bank whose credit depends absolutely on the State, and which stands responsible while it cannot offer opposition to the Government's prodigality and bad management, has all the drawbacks of a state bank, with hypocrisy added."

We have lingered too long in M. Des Essars's agreeable company, and must forego our intention to refer to certain instructive episodes in the history of the monetary union of the Latin nations as chronicled by him, which show that international bimetallism may not be free from chicanery. Passing on to other subjects, we must limit ourselves to saying of Mr. Walker's account of banking in Canada that it will doubtless be of present service in the regulation of our own currency, and that, strange as it may seem, the progress of Japan toward a sound and permanent system, to judge from the particulars furnished by Mr. Juichi Soyeda of the Imperial Ministry of Finance, is likely to be more rapid than our own. It is not generally understood that Japan has legally the gold standard, although practically the silver one, and that, after prolonged discussion by a committee in which all opinions were represented, the balance turned in favor of adopting the gold standard in practice as well as theory; the scheme apparently being similar to that favored by the Russian Government. Those of our bimetallists, therefore, who are disturbed by the advantages possessed by silver-using countries, may, if they will be patient, see Japan removed from the list of competitors.

Of Mr. Max Wirth's contributions we find that on German banking perfunctory and disappointing, while that on banking in Austria-Hungary is in most respects excellent. Of the other meritorious treatises we can say nothing except that they will be found valuable by those who have occasion to consult them; while of the whole work we can only repeat that it is a splendid monument of the enlightened enterprise of its publishers.

Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth. By Sydney George Fisher. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1897. Pp. xiii, 442.

MR. FISHER has here continued the account of Pennsylvania history begun in his volume entitled 'The Making of Pennsylvania,' noticed in these columns somewhat less than a year ago. The earlier volume was, in the main, a study of the numerous race elements that went to make up the heterogeneous population of the colony; the present volume traces the history of Pennsylvania from its foundation to near the close of the last century. There is an unimportant chapter on Pennsylvania in the Civil War, and another on the "preëminence of Philadelphia"; but, on the whole, "colony" so far overshadows "commonwealth" that the title of the work does not accurately indicate its scope. The treatment is of a popular character, and does not lack a measure of interest; but the style is often inelegant and even "slangy," while the inordinate emphasis and general lack of dignity serve very greatly to mar what might otherwise be a useful and attractive book.

In order, apparently, the better to set off the virtue of Penn in his dealings with the Indians, Mr. Fisher is at pains to combat, on moral grounds, the accepted legal doctrine that uncivilized peoples had no title to land save that of occupancy, and to show how "it remained for the Supreme Pontiff to announce that Christianity was a good excuse for theft" (p. 99); and when, as years went by, the promise of Penn in his famous treaty was still unbroken, he tells us that "in France and on the continent of Europe the great men and writers seized upon it as the most remarkable occurrence of the age" (p. 109). He seems to approve the popular idea, in the colony, of the great wealth of the Proprietors, though he is careful not to endorse Franklin's partisan and exaggerated estimate. In general, Mr. Fisher's prejudices are so strong as to leave him no peace until every enemy is twice dead. Franklin's pamphlet on 'The Nature and Necessity of a Paper Currency' not only was "a very crude performance," but went unanswered because no reply was needed to such "rubbish and nonsense." Parkman's "absurd abuse of Pennsylvania," caused by his "violent prejudice against every colony outside of New England," is not, of course, allowed to go unrebuked. On the other hand, the author can praise as extravagantly as he can blame, as when, in his laudable effort to revive the fame of Bouquet for the latter's brilliant defence of the Pennsylvania frontier in 1764, he asserts that "no single person . . . has ever before or since done [the State] such a service."

In dealing with the important period immediately preceding the declaration of national independence, Mr. Fisher has, we think, exaggerated the disposition of the patriot party to carry things with a high hand, and the disastrous effects, in some directions, of their arbitrary conduct. Moreover, to say that Massachusetts "intended independence from the beginning"; or that the object of the Continental Congress, in its resolution of May 10, 1776, was to weaken the conservatives by breaking up the charter governments, and so make independence easier of attainment; or that in Pennsylvania the resolution "made more Tories than patriots," is to give to facts a forced and even doubtful construction. A

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more careful study of Dickinson's career would not be likely to sustain Mr. Fisher's judgment that Dickinson had "a superb moral courage, in which he was equalled by no other character in American history"; while to imply that we ought to celebrate the 2d rather than the 4th of July, because the resolution in favor of independence was adopted on the former date, is to take up the cudgel for an old contention long since forgotten, and, we may add, settled. In short, Mr. Fisher seems to be first a Pennsylvanian and after that an historian; and, from either point of view, his book leaves a great many things to be desired.

The Principles of Sociology. By Herbert Spencer. Vol. III. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

THE completion of an edifice is seldom an occasion of so much public interest as the laying of the corner stone; and this is conspicuously true of Mr. Spencer's work. When we consider that he began the 'Synthetic Philosophy' six and thirty years ago, and compare the conditions of human thought now and then, we realize that a revolution has been quietly accomplished. To the young student of natural science to-day it must seem astonishing, not that Darwin's theories should have been brought forward, but that the bringing them forward should have occasioned a violent and prolonged tempest. Such students can probably not comprehend the intellectual darkness in which even the educated classes were then groping. Nor can they form any idea of the narrowness of the bigotry then prevailing among the religiously disposed. To the modern mind nothing can seem more absurd than the notion that species must have always existed just as we know them now, except the reason assigned for this notion—that certain statements in the Hebrew Scriptures, of unknown authorship and doubtful date, might be interpreted so as to give it support. Incredible as it may seem, such notions and such reasons formed part of the mental constitution of civilized man at that time; and if this is no longer true, it is largely due to Mr. Spencer's influence.

To have been potent in bringing about such a change might seem enough to gratify ordinary ambition. But the philosophy of Rabbi Ben Ezra,

> "What I aspired to be
> And was not, comforts me,"

is too high for Mr. Spencer, as it is for most mortals. Nor is he exultant over what he aspired to be and was. He has finished his allotted task, but his chief pleasure is in his emancipation. Still, he admits, "there is satisfaction in the consciousness that losses, discouragements, and shattered health" have not prevented him from fulfilling the purpose of his life. Certainly if this is not satisfaction of the highest kind, few there be that shall be satisfied.

Two of the three divisions of this volume have already appeared in print, and have therefore received due notice ere this. The third part, 'Industrial Institutions,' applies the theory of evolution, it must be confessed in a somewhat weary and perfunctory way, to the chief elements of the social system. We do not say that Mr. Spencer's powers have flagged; on the contrary, the phenomena of industrial life—division of labor, specialization of functions, slavery, serfdom, free contract, the gilds, coöperation, trade-unionism, tc.—are of a kind to afford many beautiful instances of evolution, and he is equal to his opportunities. But it is easy to see that Mr. Spencer's natural optimism is grieved by the socialistic tendencies of the day. He tries to comfort himself with the reflection that this is exactly in accordance with his theories. All progress, he explains, is rhythmical, and as we have had in the middle of the century an era of increasing freedom, so we may expect an era of decreasing freedom at its close. It is true that there is a wealth of consolation in being able to say, "I told you so," but, as Mr. Spencer's philosophy is sufficiently elastic to cover the happening of good things as well as bad, he would of course prefer to have the good things happen.

We apprehend that Mr. Spencer, like others of the millenarian school to which he really belongs, has fallen into the natural mistake of putting the date of the "Saturnia regna" too early. It is doubtless true that the process of evolution, in the case of mankind, has been in the latter centuries accelerated. Large numbers of men are, upon any reasonable reckoning, not only more comfortable than their forefathers were, but in specific respects better. Nevertheless, inspection of the human heart reveals the existence of such a considerable residuum of wickedness as to make the attainment of perfection, or equilibrium, as Mr. Spencer would call it, a very remote possibility. Theoretically the race may eventually reach this stage of development, but practically we must leave this contingency altogether out of view in our calculations.

In fact, we are tempted to apply, to Mr. Spencer, Hawthorne's remarks on one of the enthusiasts of his creation. Like the latter, Mr. Spencer had in his youth "that sense, or inward prophecy, . . . that we are not doomed to creep on for ever in the old bad way." His error, like Holbeach's, lay "in supposing that this age, more than any past or future one, is destined to see the tattered garments of antiquity exchanged for a new suit, instead of gradually renewing themselves by patchwork, in applying his own little life span as the measure of an interminable achievement, and more than all" (although it is scarcely fair to apply this to Mr. Spencer) "in fancying that it mattered anything to the great end in view whether he himself should contend for it or against it." It is clearly true that as the years have settled down more weightily on Mr. Spencer, the "haughty faith" with which he began life has been "modified by inevitable experience." But it has not been extinguished. There must eventually be produced "a kind of man so constituted that, while fulfilling his own desires, he fulfils also the social needs." The days may now be evil. An entire loss of freedom may be the fate of those who do not deserve the freedom they possess. But none of these things causes Mr. Spencer to recede from the belief expressed nearly fifty years ago, that "the ultimate man will be one whose private requirements coincide with public ones. He will be that manner of man who, in spontaneously fulfilling his own nature, incidentally performs the functions of a social unit, and yet is only enabled so to fulfil his own nature by all others doing the like." And so, to the discomfiture of many narrow-minded dogmatists, Mr. Spencer passes from the stage with a belief in the future happiness of mankind as elevating, and perhaps as comforting, as the belief in his own future happiness is to the ordinary Christian.

A Brief History of the Nations and of their Progress in Civilization. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Professor in Yale University. New York: American Book Co. 1896.

WE fully appreciate the difficulties by which the author of a short universal history is beset, and we are therefore far from wishing to suggest an unattainable standard of merit. Each new candidate for honors in the field of elementary outlines must be allowed much individual latitude. Freshness of ideas, freshness of style, even freshness of illustration, will be held to accredit any recruit to the dense battalion of compendium-writers. We wish we could welcome Dr. Fisher's manual on one or all of these grounds. If we are unable to do so it is because we find it without distinctive excellence.

Dr. Fisher's chief virtue is clearness and simplicity of style, his chief fault is uniform monotony of narrative. A good introductory sketch ought to resemble a relief map. Dr. Fisher's chapters present the appearance of a plane surface. He loads his pages with the names of persons and events which will be at once forgotten, while he fails to emphasize sufficiently the leading and typical characteristics of the periods he touches. Another failing is paucity of interesting stories and illustrations. A writer of Dr. Fisher's erudition ought to be able to select a better class of anecdotes than is here presented. We are reminded at each step of Smith's 'Shorter History of Greece' and of Collier's 'Great Events,' rather than of any contemporary sources. We do not mean to imply that Dr. Fisher himself has failed to go to the fountain-head. We only state that he does not revive us with copious draughts of water from the rock. The citation of a passage from the funeral oration of Pericles furnishes a rare exception. Dr. Fisher is also unhappy in his attempt to compress the artistic and literary features of a given period.

We shall not attempt to impugn the substantial accuracy of the present volume. Considering the large number of facts adduced, the work of revision has been very careful. On the whole, the classical section is better done than the mediæval and modern sections. Beginning with the German Inroads, a certain number of slips appear. We venture to append some of them in the hope that they may be corrected. On p. 209, Dr. Fisher states that "Rome, in the course of half a century, was the object of four terrible attacks—that of Alaric and the Visigoths; of Radagaisus, with the Suevi, Vandals, and Alani; of Gaiseric (Genseric), with the Vandals; of Attila, with the Huns." But Radagaisus was arrested at Fiesole, and Attila turned back from the Mincio. P. 210, Athaulf, Alaric's successor, was not his brother, but his wife's brother. A misapprehension is conveyed in the statement that, "by the insidious arts of Aetius, the Vandals were led to invade Africa." They passed over from Spain on the invitation of Bonifacius. A serious mistake is made on p. 212: "In 453 he [Attila] died suddenly, and the strength of the Huns was dissipated by the rivalry of his chiefs contending for the crown." The fact is that Attila's sons were overthrown at the battle of the Netad, by a rising of the Ostrogoths and other subject races. P. 320, Joan of Arc was not captured before Paris, but at Compiègne. Dr. Fisher says little about Switzerland, but three errors have crept into his notice of that confederation. The sentence, p. 325, "Switzerland, originally a part of the kingdom of Arles,

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had been ceded with this kingdom to the German Empire in 1033," contains at least two mistakes. It is wrong to refer thus early to Switzerland as a unit, and by no means all of mediæval Switzerland was comprised within the kingdom of Arles. On the same page the original league is ascribed to the "three mountain cantons." Dr. Fisher should not say, p. 446, that "on the death of Clive, Warren Hastings was made Governor-General (1772)." Clive died in England in 1774 after retiring from the public service. After the failure of the Hungarian rising of 1848, Kossuth escaped to Turkey, not to Italy. The student is certain to be misled by Dr. Fisher's phrase about the establishment of English government in Canada. "In 1774 the royal government was introduced, which brought in the inhuman criminal code of England." This sentence entirely misrepresents the scope and intent of the Quebec Act, and no further information is vouchsafed. We might extend this list, but the proportion of loose to exact statement is relatively slight.

We pass rapidly over omissions, for a book of this kind must exclude without remorse; yet it does seem strange that Dr. Fisher should touch upon Spartan society without mentioning the helots, should neglect to state that Syracuse received aid from the Lacedæmonians against the Athenian expedition, and should dismiss Etruscan origins with this doubtful phrase: "They were not improbably Aryans, but nothing more is known of their descent." The Armada, the Wagram campaign, the Peninsular War, and Catholic Emancipation are left undated. The existence of Mehemet Ali is not even hinted at. Worse than these omissions is a lack of precision. The three Benedictine vows are brought into the time of Constantine, p. 195. The issue of assignats is described in the same breath with the abolition of privileges and before the march to Versailles, p. 467. The dates of Cato the Censor, 289-149, the execution of Boethius in 424, and the battle of Tours in 720 may be placed upon the Atlantean shoulders of the printer.

Thirty years ago Dr. Fisher's 'Brief History of the Nations' would have been ranked considerably higher than we have put it. Even at present it may, in the hands of a judicious teacher, be of great service. The maps are admirable, and the pictorial reproductions of buildings, armor, and portraits are very fair.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, Prof. W. F. How to Read the Bible. Whittaker. 50c.
A Popular History of the United States. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Burgess, Prof. J. W. The Middle Period, 1817-1858. [The American History Series.] Scribners. $1.75.
Burrell, Rev. J. B., and Rev. J. D. The Early Church: Studies in the Acts of the Apostles. American Tract Society. $1.25.
Carruth, Hayden. The Voyage of the Rattletrap. Harpers. $1.25.
Church, Rev. R. W. Occasional Papers. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Dawson, Emma F. An Itinerant House, and Other Stories. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.50.
Durrett, R. T. Bryant's Station, and the Memorial Proceedings [Filson Club Publications.] Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.
Ellwood, Rev. T. Lakeland and Iceland: Being a Glossary of Words in the Dialect of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and North Lancashire which seem allied to or identical with Icelandic or Norse. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Fleming, Mrs. J. M. (Alice M. Kipling). A Pinchbeck Goddess. Appletons. 50c.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index. 1896. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
Grant, Prof. A. J. Herodotus: The Text of Canon Rawlinson's Translation, with the Notes Abridged. 2 vols. Scribners. $3.50.
Halcombe, C. J. H. The Mystic Flowery Land: A Personal Narrative. London: Luzac & Co.
Hall, Rev. A. C. A. Christ's Temptation and Ours. Longmans, Green & Co.
Jastrow, Prof. M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, etc. Part IX. Putnams. $1 25.
Jokai, Maurus. The Green Book. Harpers. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. Soldiers Three and *Military Tales.* Part II. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kitty the Rag. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Lander, Harry. Weighed in the Balance. John Lane. $1 50.
Merriam, G. S. The Chief End of Man. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Meynell, Alice. The Children. John Lane. $1.25.
Murphy, Rev. E. G. The Larger Life: Sermons and an Essay. Longmans, Green & Co
New American Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. II. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Northall, G. F. A Warwickshire Word-Book. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Pegge, Samuel. Two Collections of Derbicisms. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Richey, Rev. Thomas. The Proper Gift of the Christian Ministry. *New York: Crothers & Korth.*
Roberts, C. G. D. The Forge in the Forest. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Rowland, Reginald. An Ambitious Slave. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Russell, W. C. The Wreck of the Corsaire. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Louis Napoleon and Mademoiselle de Montijo. Scribners. $1.50.
Salmon, Prof. Lucy M. Domestic Service. Macmillan. $2.
Schreiner, Olive. Trooper Peter Halket of Mashonaland. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Smith, William. A Smaller History of Greece. Revised and enlarged ed. Harpers. $1.
Spielmann, W. Handbuch der Anstalten und Einrichtungen zur Pflege von Wissenschaft und Kunst in Berlin. *Berlin: Mayer & Müller.*
Stalker, Rev. James. The Trial and Death of Jesus Christ: A Devotional History of Our Lord's Passion. American Tract Society. $2.
Sweet, Henry. The Students' Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon. Macmillan. $1.75.
The Annual American Catalogue. 1896. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
The Descendant: A Novel. Harpers. $1.25.
The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspects. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
The Quarto: An Artistic, Literary, and Musical Quarterly for 1896. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
The Yellow Book. Vol. XII. John Lane. $1.50.
Watson, William. The Year of Shame. John Lane. $1.
Winter, J. S. Grip. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Wrong, Prof. G. M. Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada. Vol. I. Toronto: William Briggs.

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